April 1956

No. 8

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A Confusing Dichotomy

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IN JAMES I. JELINER

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High Schools in Action

### The Clearing House

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VOL. 30

APRIL 1956

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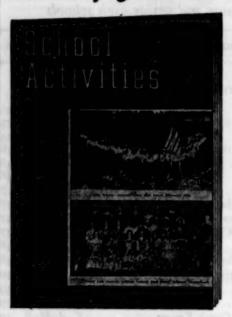
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### THE CLEARING HOUSE

A journal for modern junior and senior high schools

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No. 8

### Would You Like to Teach Overseas?

By THOMAS E. COTNER

HAVE YOU THOUGHT of teaching in another country for a year? Elementary, secondary, and junior-college teachers may apply in all subject fields for approximately 300 positions for the 1957-58 school year and for seminar grants for the summer of 1957 in France and Italy. The seminars are for teachers of French and of the classics respectively. The exchange teaching assignments are of two types—those involving an interchange of teachers and those involving a one-way assignment for an American teacher in a school abroad.

This unusual opportunity for a rewarding experience is offered to well-qualified teachers under the United States international educational exchange program. The teacher exchange program, administered by the Office of Education, in co-operation with the Department of State, is made possible by Public Law 584, Seventy-ninth Congress (the Fulbright Act), and Public Law 402, Eightieth Congress (the Smith-Mundt Act).

Interchange of teachers, subject for subject or grade level for grade level, is carried on with Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, and the United Kingdom. One-way teaching assignments, where no interchange is involved, are available in Austria, Burma, Cambodia, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Morocco, the Netherlands, Syria, Thailand, and the United Kingdom

colonial areas in Africa and the West Indies. Many of the one-way teaching positions are in the field of English as a second language. A good speaking knowledge of German is required for those teachers going to Austria and Germany, and French is required for those going to Belgium and Cambodia. In all other countries, a knowledge of the foreign language is not required, but it would be helpful.

The basic qualifications for an exchange teacher include holding the bachelor's degree and preferably the master's degree, being a citizen of the United States, having good health and moral character, and being emotionally stable and adaptable to new situations. Other considerations being equal, veterans are given preference.

### EDITOR'S NOTE

The author is director of the educational exchange and training branch, division of international education, United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C. He and his staff carry on the many programs of teacher interchange and teacher exchange between this nation and other countries. Teachers and principals desiring detailed information about the various kinds of international programs may write to the author for the 1956-57 edition of "Exchange Teaching Opportunities." This publication may be secured without charge.

Experience has indicated that younger teachers are more likely to adjust themselves to a new school and curriculum as well as to the difficult living conditions found in some countries participating in the program. For this reason, school authorities in other countries have shown a tendency to accept teachers under fifty years of age.

What about the approval of local school authorities and how are the exchanges financed? In the interchange type of arrangement, the school administrator must approve a leave of absence with pay for his teacher if she is going to the United Kingdom or Canada, and, of course, he agrees to accept a Canadian or British teacher whose salary will be paid by the school from which she comes. For teachers going on interchange to other countries, the school administrator must approve a leave of absence without pay for his American teacher, who will receive a maintenance grant paid in the currency of the country in which she teaches. Again, the school administrator here agrees to accept a foreign teacher, but to pay her a dollar salary according to regular schedules in terms of training and experience. Teachers from the United States who go on one-way assignments must obtain leaves of absence without pay, if currently employed, and they receive a maintenance grant in a foreign currency paid by the host country. Since the amount of the maintenance paid to American teachers varies from country to country and with the fluctuation of living costs in the country, it is not possible to give exact amounts here. The maintenance allowance is sufficient, however, to guarantee an adequate, professional standard of living abroad. Maintenance grants make allowance for as many as four dependents. They are subject to the United States Federal income tax.

Other financial terms of an exchange teaching award include round-trip transportation, usually paid in foreign currency under the Fulbright Act. In some instances, the travel is from port to port; in others, it even includes travel from home city to teaching assignment. Teachers from other countries coming to the United States on exchange receive the same assistance. In the interchange program with the United Kingdom, however, partial transportation costs are paid for both American and British teachers, whereas in the interchange with Canada, no travel costs are paid. The payment of transportation for dependents is not included.

Merely being a well-qualified teacher is not enough. A candidate should have a real interest in the culture, history, educational system, and people of the country to which he wishes to go. He should also have the ability and willingness to interpret the United States-its people, customs, and culture-to people abroad. One of the objectives of the program is to develop a mutual, sympathetic understanding between peoples of the two nations concerned, and another is to present a true picture of the United States overseas in order to offset unfavorable propaganda directed against this country. Moreover, an American teacher must be willing to try to adapt to a new environment, a different educational system, possibly to different methods, and sometimes to physical discomfort or inconvenience. In some countries, the classrooms will be 55 or 60 degrees, cold by our standards. In others, they may be too hot. Housing conditions and plumbing may not be what you would like. As you can see, a pioneer spirit to some extent is needed. A teacher who cannot adjust to these and other differences in social customs should not apply. As Mrs. Lynd LaMont, who went to Thailand, said: "One must make every effort to understand the culture and philosophies of the people. It is probably good for all of us to know humility." Miss Grace Stevens, who spent a year in Iran, adds: "I felt the need of being careful not to offend through my ignorance of their ways." With all of these considerations in mind, it is apparent that only the best representatives of our teaching profession—those with tact, with ability to adjust, and with a sensitivity to the mores of other peoples—should serve.

All of this is not meant to discourage but rather to challenge you to apply for one of the most meaningful experiences of a teaching career. The rich personal, professional, and cultural benefits of the year abroad will indeed be of value to you. The following statements from American teachers who participated in the teacher exchange program indicate what it meant to them:

[This] has been one of the greatest experiences of my life. . . . I discover that I am a changed person. Horizons have rolled back; insight has deepened; vision and faith in international understanding have been increased. . . .-Miss Sandrene Schutt, the Netherlands, 1952-54.

My family and I, while abroad, developed a deeper love for America, and a better understanding of her position in the world today.—Robert L. Chegwidden, England, 1952-53.

My understanding of Europe and my sympathy for her problems have been enhanced much more than I had expected. . . . This result of my Fulbright year can hardly be overestimated.—Mrs. B. Rossine Feeley, the Netherlands, 1955-54.

The benefits of the summer in France to me personally and as a teacher of French are priceless.—An American who attended the French seminar, 1953.

Assisting in the selection of teachers coming to the United States and in the placement of American teachers abroad are binational educational foundations or commissions. Half of their members are Americans resident in the foreign country and half are nationals of that country. A few comments from the foundations show the effectiveness of the American teacher overseas:

Mr. Gunnar J. Malmin and his family were very popular with the Norwegian people and were entertained more than fifty times at social gatherings; his children attended the state schools and made many friends. Through his lectures he reached more than 5,000 people all over Norway.—USEF/Norway, Annual Report, 1952.

The personal success of Miss Valerie Foley can be measured by the crowds of persons who were on the station platform at Bruges and the neighboring city of Ghent to see her off. . . . In Liège, Mr. Kenneth Canfield was regarded as a universal authority on things American.—USEF/Belgium, Annual Report, 1952.

The sponsor of Public Law 584, Seventyninth Congress, Senator J. W. Fulbright of Arkansas, who was a former Rhodes Scholar, has this to say about the importance of the American teacher in the exchange program: "Through the visual image of what the American teacher is like, foreign peoples have not only revised their notions about America as a whole; they have not only revised their textbooks on America-they have made changes which can be a firmer link between peoples than any treaty agreed to while trumpets blare; they have made changes in such vital internal matters as the social relationship between teachers themselves, between teachers and students, between teachers and parents, and between teachers and the general community."

Teachers who are interested in having this challenging experience, who can and want to interpret our country and way of life to others, and who, upon return, will interpret faithfully to us what they have learned about other countries and peoples should apply between July 1 and October 15, 1956, for an exchange teaching position by writing to the Teacher Exchange Section, Educational Exchange and Training Branch, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington 25, D.C.

# How Johnny Learns to Read in High School

By ANGELL MATHEWSON

At the Trenton Central High School the pupils in the tenth grade are divided into two equal groups when they enter in the fall. One of these takes a lecture-library, free-reading program for the semester, while the other takes a course in composition. In the second semester these two

groups exchange programs.

The lecture-library program is a course in "free reading," which, on the theory that the way to learn to read is by "reading, reading, and then some more reading," is designed to develop reading taste and reading maturity through capitalizing upon the discovered reading interests of the individual pupils. These adolescent boys and girls meet twice a week to hear lectures and to see films on five kinds of reading: novels, short stories, plays, poetry, and miscellaneous types of prose nonfiction. They spend the other three English periods of the week in the two libraries, where teacher librarians help them to select titles appropriate to their interests and levels of ability in reading and try to guide them toward progressively higher and more mature levels of reading taste.

Three definite aims have been stated for this course: (1) To enable the pupil to test by experience the truth of the assertion that reading is a source of pleasure. (2) To acquaint the pupil with the various types of literature and to familiarize him with sources from which he can procure enjoyable specimens of these types to read. (3) To give the pupil the inclination and the

ability to use the library.

The sole requirement of the course is that the pupil sample, as his abilities permit, the types of literature represented by the novel, the short story, the drama, poetry, and nonfiction. The pupil is not responsible for learning any specific body of knowledge, and there is no list of readings which he must complete. All that is required of him is that he explore honestly the fields dealt with, in quest of material which he can read with understanding and pleasure.

There are five lecturers, one for each of the first five periods of the day, who talk to the pupils in groups ranging in size from eighty to one hundred in a small auditorium on Tuesdays and Thursdays. The reader may be interested to know that while the personnel of this group has changed frequently, the lecturers have always been male members of the English department, although both men and women have served as teacher librarians. The purposes of the lectures are (a) to stimulate a desire to

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

Do pupils learn to read better and quicker when they take a lecture-library course in free reading or when they read material prescribed in a formal English class? We found the description of the free-reading course and the comparison in outcomes between that and the regular English class interesting. But the findings are even more interesting. Much of the material is excerpted from the author's doctoral thesis submitted to Rutgers University last year. He is head of the English department at Central High School, Trenton, N.J.

read widely in the field represented; (b) to inform the pupil about sources of reading matter which he will probably like; and (c) to equip the pupil with such special techniques as may be helpful in reading any particular type of literature, such as drama or verse.

Lecturers endeavor to keep technical information to a minimum, and anything of this nature that is introduced is selected on the basis of its value to the reader rather than its importance in the realm of literary criticism. Facts concerning the development of the popular literary forms are presented only if they will help the pupil reader to enjoy those forms. The pupil is never tested on his knowledge of the content of the lectures, and the only measure of their effectiveness (an extremely subjective one, to be sure) is the extent to which they lead pupils to read.

One criterion by which to judge the worth of free reading is its effect upon the individual pupil. There is this to be said for it: it does give him the opportunity to exercise his initiative, to develop his will power, to become familiar with standards of good taste in reading, and to discipline his choice in reading to conform to those standards. The responsibility for developing an intelligent reading program is his own, and he encounters a minimum of interference while doing it. The following sketches will introduce some of the pupils who took the course, give some idea of what they accomplished under it, and show their opinion of its worth.

C.K.—C.K., the daughter of a truck driver, expressed preference for free reading over group reading. Although she is very pretty and vivacious, her home background is quite ordinary. Nevertheless, she has an I.Q. of 112 and has experienced little difficulty in maintaining honor ratings in the academic curriculum. She joined two clubs in her sophomore year and participated actively in the program of sports for girls. She is well adjusted, has a happy home life,

and has enjoyed all phases of her life at school, too-including the free-reading program, which apparently opened her eyes to new sources of pleasure that she had not been aware of previously.

An interview with C.K. revealed that she was interested in people and their problems, and in travel. She said that in tenth grade she had learned to enjoy reading biographies and problem novels, and she expressed a desire some day to travel and visit places that she had read about, such as England, Arizona, Hawaii, Canada, Alaska, and Australia. She said that she liked books with difficult vocabularies because she found them educational. Although she had just turned fifteen when she entered tenth grade, this girl found that she could read Sandburg's biography of Lincoln and Ernie Pyle's war journals with pleasure and understanding; she read novels by Tarkington, Ferber, Melville, and Lewis; and she listed a good many fine poems on her reading record, thus evincing an interest which most of her classmates, even the most intelligent, had failed to manifest. The opportunity to nurture her newly found interests by reading freely in the library seemed to satisfy a craving in this girl's nature for something that the conventional English classroom could not supply with its common readings.

Some pupils resent the discipline of common readings, while others welcome it. In tenth grade, C.K. was apparently developing a mind and will power of her own and found that the freedom of the library atmosphere answered a peculiar need for her. Her scores on the Gates Reading Survey lend support to her own estimate of the value of the course to her. In September her reading grade score was 9.9, just about normal; and four months later it stood at 11.1, a gain of 1.2-seven months above the normal grade score. Her reading age score was 15.8 in September and 16.9 in January, although she was actually fifteen years and two months old in September, and fifteen

years and six months in January, 1953. Clearly the free-reading course was good for this girl. She says that it was, and the data available appear to lend credence to her statement. Her own written comment runs as follows:

I would much rather read the way we read in tenth grade, browsing and choosing my own books, because in that way I was better able to follow my own interests. The way we read books in the regular English class this year is not fair to the individual pupil. The fast readers ruin the pleasure of the slow ones by telling the story before the slow ones have a chance to read it, and your mind is so full of other people's opinions that you don't have a chance to form your own. In library class you could read a book and form your own opinion without interference. In English class, before you even begin to read a new book, you have to contend with a preconceived notion that it's terrible, because the English classics that you are given are too heavy and involved to suit your taste. I made one great discovery in the library, and that was that the teenager books that I had been reading were all cheap and all alike. When I got to reading books like Tarkington's Alice Adams and Sinclair Lewis' Babbitt, I learned that good novels help you to understand people's problems.

S.R.-A boy who expressed a decided preference for the free-reading course when he was interviewed a full year after he had finished that part of his tenth-grade work was S.R. In his case, however, there is doubt whether the free-reading regimen was beneficial at that stage of his mental development. In tenth grade, reading became the ruling passion of his life. He was almost never seen without a book in his handsusually juvenile fiction-and he read so much that he neglected his studies. He loved the library so much that he volunteered to serve there gratis as a page during his lunch period, replacing books on the shelves. This work enabled him to handle and to examine thousands of books, a great many of which he endeavored to read. Much of the time he appeared to live in a fictional dreamworld, neglecting sports and friendships. The father of S.R., who was a deliveryman for a dairy, left school at the end of tenth grade, but his mother was graduated from high school and attended college for a time. Upon all three of her sons she had strongly impressed her own view that wide reading is open sesame to a liberal education.

The reading record of S.R. contained a longer list of titles than any other record which the writer examined, but it revealed a decided preference for fiction of the type written expressly for adolescent boys. He estimated that he read three or more such books every week and perhaps as many as 175 in a year. Most of these dealt with sports, although he also enjoyed books about war and travel. This boy admitted that he never read a book for the sake of self-improvement and said that he quickly rejected one if it did not appeal to his taste. He was not reading trash; but still he was not progressing satisfactorily towards adult interests: he was stranded upon a plateau of adolescent fancies.

S.R.'s I.Q. was 113, and his reading ability as shown by the Gates Survey was above average. In September his reading grade score was 10.1, and four months later 10.6; his reading age score was 15.10 in September and 16.4 in January. Although his reading age in January was almost identical with his chronological age, he did not make a good academic record. He had two D's at the end of his first semester in tenth grade; and a year later, at the end of his first semester in eleventh grade, he earned a C in English and a D in his other three subjects-physics, Latin, and intermediate algebra. Wollner's observation that "the belief that voracious reading is always natural or beneficial needs challenging on the grounds that excessive interest in reading appears to be associated with as awkward a pattern of emotional-social development as the avoid-

ant attitudes" appears to fit the lament-

Mary H. B. Wollner, Children's Voluntary Reading as an Expression of Individuality, Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 944. (New York: 1949), p. 82.

able case of S.R. rather well. His reading ability increased under free reading; but his reading tastes did not improve and his studies suffered from neglect. In all probability the course did him more harm than good.

A full year after he had finished the freereading course, this boy wrote the following comment on it:

I still say that I liked reading in the library better than group reading in an English class because last year I had a full period three days in each week to read just what I wanted to read. This year I take drama because I thought I might like acting. This course I suppose is much more educational, but I don't like being told what to read. Shakespeare doesn't appeal to me the way Stephen W. Meader, John R. Tunis, Jack London, and Walter Farley do. I have read more than seventy books by these authors; and, of them all, Meader is my favorite.

C.B.—The daughter of an Italian chef, C.B. had a great deal of housework to do at home because her mother was dead. She enrolled in the secretarial course in high school and looked upon education as merely vocational training. In intelligence she was above average—I.Q. 116; but her reading ability tested a little below normal. The reading grade score was 9.1 in September, 9.6 in January; reading age score 14.9 in September and 15.4 in January.

This girl's father stopped school after eighth grade, and she knew nothing about her mother's educational background. She said that no magazines came regularly to her home, but that her favorite one was True Story, which she occasionally purchased for herself. Her favorite hobby was fashion designing, which she studied in newspaper advertising. She had no one at home to discuss her reading with and declared that she would reject any book with a difficult vocabulary because of her trouble in understanding it. She said, though, that she considered reading an enjoyable pastime when she had the time for it.

This girl treated herself to a veritable reading spree when she was in the library course. Her record listed nine novels, fortythree short stories, six works of prose nonfiction, eight plays, and no poetry. The quality of the novels and nonfiction books which she chose was poor, but that of the short stories and plays rather good. In reading novels and nonfiction, this girl was really studying vocations on her juvenile level. She read no less than four Sue Barton, Nurse books by Helen Boylston, while her choice of nonfiction reflected her interest in etiquette, dress, and a career.

It seems fairly obvious that the free-reading course, in this case, enriched the mental activity of a girl with a rather impoverished background, and opened new vistas before her. She did not achieve a very high level of taste, but her good basic traits of character asserted themselves in her choice of books which answered her needs. In eleventh grade she expressed her opinion of the two approaches to reading as follows:

Free reading is always enjoyable for me because I am able to read what interests me. If I ever had to read Shakespeare by myself, I would have a tough time understanding it. Therefore, I think I really prefer the guided reading in the classroom because I enjoy hearing the teacher explain the meaning and I enjoy a book better when I understand it. I think that the pupils waste a good deal of their time in the libraries.

It is true that not everyone enjoys reading the same book in the English classroom, but he can learn even if he doesn't enjoy it. I am learning more from our guided reading course this year than I did from free reading last year, but I don't read books as much now as I did when I was younger. With my job after school I have no time to go to the library, so I read magazines.

R.P.—The father of R.P. was a truck driver whose formal schooling stopped with graduation from a parochial elementary school. His mother, an immigrant from Poland, had no education in this country other than what she acquired from attending Americanization classes in the evening. Although his home possessed very limited cultural resources, this boy said that he had learned to read when he was six years old and had always derived a great deal of en-

joyment from it. His principal source of reading materials had always been a branch of the Trenton Public Library which was near his home. Though the only newspapers in the home were local ones printed in English and Polish and the only magazines were Life, Look, and Popular Mechanics, this boy, through the years of his youth, had somehow developed a taste in reading which showed a strong leaning toward the more artistic types of literature. Very good intelligence (I.Q. 121), regular patronage of the library, and a yearning for the finer things of life seem to be the principal factors accounting for the strong interest which he displayed in modern poetry and modern drama while pursuing the course in free reading. The fact that he had studied three languages besides English-Latin, Spanish, and Polish-may also have some relevancy to his rather unusual insight into the imagery and artistry of polite literature. Although his teachers felt that he displayed exceptionally good judgment in choosing books to read, R.P. himself expressed dissatisfaction with his reading and said that he hoped in the future to be able to widen his interests to include many other areas of knowledge and culture.

The Gates Reading Survey indicated that R.P. possessed normal reading ability in tenth grade. He scored a reading grade level of 9.9 on form I and 10.5 on form II at the end of the semester. In the same order, his reading age scores were 15.8 and 16.2. His reading record revealed no vestiges whatever of childish interests in reading. The poets whose works he sampled quite copiously were the following: Carl Sandburg, Vachel Lindsay, Hilda Doolittle, Joyce Kilmer, Marianne Moore, Robinson Jeffers, Emily Dickinson, Amy Lowell, and Stephen Vincent Benét—a selection which

suggests both competence and sophistication. The playwrights included Clifford Odets, Maxwell Anderson, Robert Sherwood, and Thornton Wilder—all of them writers who express themselves on an intellectual plane which is considerably above that of the average tenth-grade student in high school.

R.P. chose Drama I as his eleventh-grade English elective and after one semester in the course had the following to say about it in comparison with the free-reading course of the previous year:

I prefer reading with a small class to the free reading plan because the small group affords me a better chance to understand the contents of the books and to hear others' opinions about them. Although this method is slower than free reading. I think it is more effective. I think that one learns more about the story, the characters, and their actions by discussing them. Both methods have aided me in my reading, for by free reading I have increased my speed and by group reading I have been able to get deeper understanding of the books through analyzing the characters and their motives for their actions. I have acquired many new and interesting slants on reading from my classmates. I think that group reading is the better approach, for it enables the poor reader to get help in solving his reading problems.

These case histories show (1) extensive variations in the environmental factors which influenced the attitudes of the tenth-grade pupils in Trenton High School toward their reading; (2) a wide range in maturity of taste, as shown by the titles which they selected to read; (3) normal growth in reading ability under the free-reading plan; and (4) no conspicuous preference on the part of the pupils for free reading over group reading, or vice versa. It seems reasonable to conclude that "free reading" merits respectable status as one of the many valuable approaches to the teaching of reading in high school.

### DISCIPLINE:

# A Confusing Dichotomy

By PAUL W. SCHMIDTCHEN

Discipline Today is a fighting word, a resounding word. Ah! treacherous connotation. Everybody wants everybody else disciplined—with someone else to do the disciplining, of course. A political candidate running for re-election years ago needed only "for God, for country, for wife and child. . . ." Currently, he had better add, "and more discipline, too."

And why this seeming clarion call? For one reason, we talk and write about discipline overly much. We like panaceas: a disciplined body is a no-trouble body. (Also naturally, a dead body—perfect discipline!) It is nice; it is convenient; it is apropos. But for whom? When? Apropos of what?

We pride ourselves on being democratic (small d, if you insist). This is also a fighting word (large or small d). To be sure, I suppose it would be nice to have both discipline and democracy in equal measure; some claim it is actually possible. (If you want both, by all means have both!) But is there not a decided discrepancy between the two? Democratic behavior is not necessarily a "disciplined" behavior. As a matter of fact, a truly "disciplined" rapport smacks of an aristocratic nature. Discipline connotes strict and regular mental or moral behavior, obedience, submission to control, punishment, order as maintained in a schoolroom, military organization, prison, and so on. And this is democratic?

Which will it be? We take a vote (democratic) and we come up with "both." Well, to have both we must give and take. So we water down some democratic inheritance to achieve a more suitable disciplined behavior. How much? When do we stop? When is enough? Here is the problem.

Mind you, even the United States Army, a most regimented organization if ever one saw such, cries today at a lack of discipline. And, of course, the army gives in return security for the privilege of extracting obedience, i.e., you give something to get something. But the people who must pay the price are not conclusively sure (or clear) as to what they are letting themselves in for.

So we set up a test case: Youngsters should be disciplined. They should not expect to do things just because adults do them. They need the experience of discipline; it toughens them; it "educates" them; it bolsters them. (How can you go wrong?) Certainly, nobody opposes this demand? "Even the teen-agers want it," it is said.

But how quick some adults are to criticize (yet, to prove their case they merely point to flamboyant headlines labeled "juvenile delinquency") and how slow they are to volunteer services or even financial assistance. It is a rather vicious circle, like a dog after its own tail.

Consequently, we get this: Let the schools do it. (After all, parents are busy; have other work more demanding; are not qualified to handle the problem.) That schools were set up essentially for transmitting sub-

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

We hope you agree that an article conveying righteous indignation makes for interesting reading. The author of this article writes indignantly but sharply and he rails at those whose thinking on discipline might be termed superficial. He is principal of the high school at Metuchen, N.J.

ject skills is but an irrelevant bother. (You must control before you can teach.) So ordered, we bow a somewhat bloodied head

and attack the problem.

"Attack" is the proper word. When you get youngsters in grades seven and higher who actually have to look up the meaning of "discipline" in a dictionary, you can readily see the battle lines being formed. Moreover, once an institution takes over a family function, it tends to be fixed; there is usually no reversion. Henceforth, discipline becomes part of the curriculum (along with auto driving, social dancing, athletics). Who is to say no? But-a teacher with a daily class load of 150 youngsters with forty-minute subject periods can do just so much. You get nothing for nothing. Add something and something will soon be out. And who is to cry priority?

However, on the surface and from the outside of the school, all seems to be going well. Laws are soon laid down: no smoking, no dungarees, no chewing gum, no this, no that. All must comply; time is vital. The multitudes press upon us; individual attention and activity must be sacrificed. Disci-

pline will do it!

And so, rather amazing results are garnered, i.e., similarity, a "losing face" response, a retardation in the questioning procedure, a difficulty to live alone and like it. There is a place for all this, but I'm not sure that everyone will concur.

Moreover, we soon come to the articulate and fighting mad small d democrat. "Who says that my boy cannot wear dungarees to school?" "How can you deny a boy schooling when he smokes with my permission?" "Why can't exceptions be made?" "Since when does a school set up 'crimes,' which are not illegal, immoral, or even immodest elsewhere?" "Who serves whom? The school, society; or society, the school?" And so the school becomes the happy hunting ground between those who claim it does too much.

Education is far from an exact science, if science you wish it to be. It cannot be commandeered; it needs democracy and, of course, some discipline—not regimentation and license. And because of its removal from dogmatic determination, schooling is subject to a constant barrage of conflicting criticism, loyalty, and suggestion. If educators talk and write too much, they "propagandize" and throw their weight around. If they continually accept each and every pressure group until stratification sets in, then they are guilty of not properly informing the public.

So at the risk of offending some, I raise the question, "Which shall it be in case of conflict, the democratic procedure or the disciplined behavior?" It goes without saying that a balance between freedom and order is essential for any proper learning situation, but equal partners in life as we know it tend to be a fleeting thing at best. We will most certainly insist on discipline, but it should be a means to an end, not an end in itself. Will the rampant disciplinarians be willing to accept this premise, or will they, instead, place the blame for juvenile delinquency on the schools' "pro-

gressive" tendencies?

Though there is no conflict in the fact that a moderate amount of firm discipline is the best thing in the world for a young-ster, the conflict stems from the varying definitions of "moderate"—this too readily means chaotic confusion by those who seek a rigidly authoritarian atmosphere. To be sure, there is a natural temptation to accept and inculcate proscription by parents and teachers, at the expense of our coming adults. Yet, if we desire forceful, quick-thinking, and versatile pupils we must give adults. Yet, if we desire forceful, quick thinking, and versatile. This cannot be done in a mental straitjacket.

Most of our youngsters need warm and sympathetic contacts in schools (just as they deserve the same at home), with emphasis on personal guidance. An act is right if it leads to the development of personality and human welfare; it is wrong when it leads to the destruction of human personality. This does not in any way mean that punishment must be avoided per se. When a pupil does something wrong, it should not go unnoticed; it should not go uncorrected. But the potential act by the boy is part of the educational process; proper schooling should have prepared the way with the "why" as well as with the "what not to do."

In short, discipline in school or elsewhere is a fine thing—but it can be overdone. Its devotees are too willing to assign it top priority and a magna cum laude. We live in a highly complicated world; difference is rampant and is not always bad. We should beware the bewitching nature of any homogenizing formula. We must decide the cost before we pay the price. Which is more important: humanism in all of its wealth of manifestation or the restricting tool of social expediency?

### Save That Chalk Dust

By RALPH E. LENT (Hancock, N.Y.)

One of the materials that the schools of today abhor and scorn is chalk dust. Chalk dust, the byproduct of many a teacher's or student's eraser, has long been something that has ended in an incinerator or vacuum cleaner.

The students in my junior-high classes are frequently found standing at the chalk tray, carefully scooping the valuable by-product and putting it into a pint jar. Or you might even see a student with a hammer standing by our stone window sill and pounding into dust useless bits of chalk that can no longer be utilized for writing. Sometimes they are sent on a foreign mission to other rooms to gather the material for use in our classes.

Why in the whole wide world would anyone want chalk dust in class except perhaps to add it to one's already graying hair? It seems that a teacher would get gray enough without putting chalk dust on it. But that is not the way we use it. It is as simple as this: In the motion-picture production that our classes create on 8 mm film correlated with a tape recorder, we have used the dust in many useful ways in many scenes in history.

For example, our first experience was in the film, "Founding of Jamestown." Historians say that John Smith was badly burned by an explosion of gunpowder and had to return to England. In our scene we had John emptying his pipe ashes into a barrel labeled "gunpowder." In order to give the effect of an explosion, students with tubes of paper filled with chalk dust lined up on each side of

the scene not included in the picture, and upon the signal they gave their all. John, acting his part out, keeled over badly burned.

On other occasions we have used it in the Boston Massacre with the British soldiers lined up, pointing their guns at the Boston mob, while students with the tubes of dust fired over their shoulders, out of sight of the camera. This gave us the effect of a firing melee and the mob scattered, some falling wounded. We have had a sea battle between John Paul Jones' ship, the Bonhomme Richard, and the British ship, the Seropis. The children made a flat cardboard ship with sails and a paper tacked on the bow indicating which ship was in action. Boys with the tubes of dust fired their loads from the decks of the ship, giving the effect of a battle at sea. At Saratoga our cardboard cannon was loaded and fired into the ranks of Burgoyne's men. Alexander Hamilton was mortally wounded by chalk dust from the pistol of Aaron Burr. Our World War I watercooled 30-cal, machine gun dragged in by the children has mowed down many a charging line of infantry in our World War II picture by pumping chalk dust through the barrel to simulate firing.

All this chalk dust with sound effects plus a musical background brings dead history to life and enthusiasm to my children, which I wouldn't be able to arouse otherwise. At times the students and the teacher may be seen with traces of the dust upon their persons as we try to relive history in a new and different way.

### Literature and the development of

### CRITICAL THINKING

By JAMES J. JELINEK

THAT METHODS of teaching and curriculum planning used in the past have been too much concerned with how best to transmit facts is recognized by leading educators. While it is important for the student to know facts in order to do critical thinking. the transmitting of facts does not constitute the basic problem of teaching technique and curriculum organization. From the standpoint of the student, the real problem is how to translate the facts. The basic question is: What methods can be used to make knowledge meaningful for the student? The answer is: Students and subjects must be taught, not subjects alone. The curriculum must be more concerned than at present with problems that are meaningful to students than with answers to questions students have never raised.

While classics in literature present hypotheses which are significant from the point of view of literary critics, students cannot evaluate the hypotheses critically or give them the consideration which is their due if the students find that literature and their own experiences are widely separated. If factual material is to be translated instead of merely transmitted, literature must be made to challenge minds with ideas about human affairs on both the personal and the social plane-ideas about moral attitudes, human nature and conduct, and responses of various individuals to a diversity of situations. Hence in order to make the study of the literary classics effective and meaningful in terms of critical thinking, an approach must be employed which utilizes the major concerns of the psychologist, the sociologist, and the philosopher.

More specifically, the approach should be less concerned with teacher-formulated questions such as (1) "Who wrote Pheidippides?" (2) "What is the parallelism between the theme of Ode on a Grecian Urn and the marriage ceremonies of the Latuka?" and (3) "When did John Donne write The Funerall" From the point of view of the student doing critical thinking about his everyday problems, the approach could, for example, be concerned with Hugo's Les Misérables as a challenging picture of life which shows the pressure of civilization upon the poor; Huxley's Point Counter Point as a provocative analysis of the vices that prevail when individuals have no religion, no philosophy, no ideals for distinguishing between moral and immoral conduct; and Gide's The Counterfeiters as a stirring portrayal of the psychology of love and sex.

In these terms, the new child-centered approach to the curriculum, as compared to

### **EDITOR'S NOTE**

A test question in a high-school class in Julius Caesar ran this way: "Was Caesar deaf in the left or right ear?" The purpose of the question was to find out how the conspirators approached Caesar on the day of his assassination. The study of literature can be used for memoriter practice or to cause students to think. The author, who is head of the division of secondary education, Arizona State College at Tempe, states that a basic question in literature study is: "What methods can be used to make knowledge meaningful for the student?"

the conventional subject-centered curriculum, involves more numerous and more complex basic skills to meet the needs of students. The character of the fundamental skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic have to be expanded to include not only critical thinking, which should be a primary concern, but also work-study skills, library skills, skills of physical health, and skills in personal-social relationships. It is important to note that while the childcentered curriculum involves the student's learning a greater number of basic skills and devotes less aggregate time to formal instruction in these skills, the accumulated evidence in educational research shows that growth in the basic skills exceeds the standards achieved in the subject-centered curriculum.

Critical thinking is essentially a matter of interpreting facts, applying generalizations, and recognizing errors in logic. The skill of interpretation includes the ability to evaluate an author's idea; to make deductions, inferences, and generalizations; to draw conclusions on the basis of facts presented. The skill of applying generalizations to new situations involves the ability to determine when and where a concept will satisfy the demands of a situation and to recognize and devise reasons for the application of the principle. The skill of recognizing errors in logic includes the ability to detect propaganda; to recognize key words, the distortion of which will give false conclusions; and to avoid ridicule or appeals to prejudice in attempting to disprove logical statements.

If students are encouraged to study literature in terms of utilizing its hypotheses to meet their personal and social problems, they will recognize that critical thinking, which involves interpretation of facts, application of generalizations, and recogni-

tion of errors in logic, is a basic tool of intelligent living. This becomes more evident when it is considered that the literary classicists not only differ among themselves in matters large and small but that they also offer some very questionable notions as to what constitutes the truth, the way, and the light. While, for example, Singer in The Brothers Ashkenazi portrays the glories and achievements of capitalism, Bellamy in Looking Backward describes the ills of capitalism and how they can be banished by socialism. While Anker-Larsen in Martha and Mary describes the benevolence which prevails in the spiritual growth of the religious, Butler in The Way of All Flesh provides a scathing attack on the false ideas of respectability and the narrow and hypocritical ways of the church and its followers. Peterkin writes in Black April that a new moon is right for planting but makes "birthin'" a child "tough work"; Webster in The Duchess of Malfi tells that a woman's eager longing for fruits and vegetables, especially when out of season, is proof of pregnancy; Thomas Aquinas in Summa Theologica states that woman is defective and misbegotten; and Wesley in his Journal states that the giving up of witchcraft is in effect giving up the Bible. Herein lies fertile soil for developing the techniques of critical thinking in areas of fundamental interest to students.

It is a basic principle of the child-centered approach that the school help the student realize the need for testing his own thinking as well as the thinking of others. It thus becomes an important obligation not only of teachers of English but of all teachers to help students develop the ability to recognize the problems, organize information, weigh evidence, draw conclusions, and apply conclusions to new situations.

### THE EUROPEAN HIGH SCHOOL:

### Is It Really Better?

By WALTER HAHN

CRITICS OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL frequently use as one of their arguments the fact that, supposedly, European secondary schools are more effective than are the high schools of our country, The implied assumption is that, in order to do a better job of teaching the fundamental skills, improving classroom discipline, and achieving other important goals, we should consider imitating the characteristics common to the high schools of most European countries.

As a leader of a group of American educators, I saw those secondary schools in action very recently and had occasions to confer with administrators and teachers of both public schools and higher institutions. Having received my own public-school and undergraduate training in Europe and having subsequently taught for years in American public schools and universities I should like to present a viewpoint on the often debated topic of the alleged superiority of

the European high school.

Basic Purpose of Secondary Education in Europe. The term secondary education does not have the same meaning on the two continents. "The American high school," a German educator told us, "is an age group, while in Germany, secondary education is only for gifted children whose parents, rich or poor, want them to have such an education." Of course, there are variations from one European country to another. However, the basic pattern is for the first four years of school to be common to all children. Then, at about age eleven, the decision is made whether a particular youngster is to go to elementary school or to secondary school. The elementary school leads him to the end of compulsory education (generally at age fourteen or fifteen),

followed in all likelihood by a combination of an apprenticeship and part-time continuation education. Various forms of postelementary education exist in most countries. Some of these schools carry the designation "secondary" (the Bernese Sekundarschule is an example) but do not lead to college entrance. The secondary school proper, on the other hand, does not generally provide a wide choice of courses but limits the student to selection of one of several types of schools. Each of these school types is characterized by the fact that it leads to an examination which, if passed by the student, will entitle him to proceed to higher education.

Attempts are being made in several countries to provide some form of education common to all children beyond age eleven. This is due to recognition by more and more European schoolmen that it is difficult wisely to make an almost irrevocable

### EDITOR'S NOTE

The author returned a few months ago from the University of Utah's study tour of Europe. A group of school teachers from various parts of the country visited classrooms, conferred with teachers and administrators of public schools and higher institutions in Europe, and compared what they saw with the systems in which they work here. The writer was leader of this group. He was born in Europe and attended European schools and colleges before coming here in 1939. Since then he has taught in this country, mostly in secondary schools. We doubt that there is a person any better qualified to write on the topic.

decision at that stage of a youngster's development. For example, the schools of West Berlin, following the first four years of the Grundschule (basic school), offer two additional years of elementary education (incidentally, including foreign language as a required subject). This somewhat postpones the choice between elementary and secondary types of schooling. Similarly, if the French parliament accepts the latest French government reform proposals, youngsters in that country will not be required until age thirteen to make the inevitable decision between the lycée (secondary school) and technical education.

Despite such attempts at change and despite the general trend of lengthening the period of compulsory education, most European school systems still, at one point or another, divide all youth into two groups. One group consists of those who go into schools designed to complete or slightly exceed the period of compulsory education. The other group-numbering between 10 and 20 per cent of the population-includes, at least in theory, an intellectual elite chosen for attendance at the most respected type of secondary school: that which leads to university entrance. I seriously doubt that we can or should import the selective character of the European high school. It is education for the few.

Where Is the Basic Emphasis in the European High-School Curriculum? Adjusted to the needs of European society, the curriculum of the secondary school places greater stress than does that of the typical American high school on the national culture which it is supposed to perpetuate. Our group of American educators was strongly impressed by the amount of information the "man in the street" in such countries as France and Italy had on the political history of his country and on its art and literature, as well as on foreign languages and the elements of science.

The secondary school, working as it does with a selected group and aiming at the formation of future leaders, is the most essential and effective instrument in furthering this cultural emphasis. We found, for example, a group of seventeen-year-olds at the Lycée Louis-le-Grand in Paris doing serious-minded and relatively advanced physics and chemistry experiments. In Bonn, Germany, we witnessed a French lesson where fifteen-year-old boys received explanations on French grammar and then oral drill on these rules-everything without the use of a single German word. In Holland, two of the four types of secondary schools teach some phases of differential and integral calculus. National culture, including history, geography, and literature, is given enormous attention in all the school systems of western Europe. In Denmark, these areas are also the center of attention in the famous folk high schools, which attract as many as 10 per cent of the eighteen- to twenty-year-olds, thus giving a partial secondary education each year to thousands of Danes who have not had a regular high-school course at the normal age for such training.

In evaluating the highly intellectualized European high-school curriculum, we cannot avoid raising these questions:

Assuming that all information taught by the European high school is needed by students there-and this is being seriously doubted even by a considerable segment of generally conservative French educators-is there any evidence that life in America demands a similar mass of factual knowledge? On the other hand, after all the research done in this area, is it still possible to claim for Latin or geometry, to name but two examples, an amount of transfer of training which cannot be equally well obtained through subjects of greater intrinsic usefulness to all students? One can be a strong defender of the need for raising academic standards in some of our high-school courses and yet answer the foregoing questions in the negative.

Which Are the Principal Gaps in the European High-School Curriculum? At this point, it becomes necessary to mention not only what we observed but also what we did not-and could not-see in most European school systems. One obvious lack is in the area of vocational or commercial courses. They are not characteristic of most European secondary schools. The exceptions are schools labeled "secondary" but actually not enjoying the reputation of representing the most respected type of such schoolsthat which prepares for university admission. While art and music are taught (rather generally as subjects required of all students), there are but few opportunities, within the traditional curriculum, for a student to branch out into such fields as commercial art, leatherwork, a cappella, and string or wood-wind ensembles. Berlin's Musische Oberschule, which stresses the fine arts, is a most noteworthy exception.

Even within the academic courses offered, practical aspects of science or mathematics tend to be neglected, compared with the attention paid to theoretical foundations. History receives more emphasis than civics or economics, just as the national language and literature are taught, while dramatics, journalism, and so on, are generally not considered worthy of a place in the course of studies. Character education, traditionally a major task of British schools, is still largely regarded on the Continent as a by-product of the college-preparatory course of study. Hence, the curriculum, while strong in a small number of subjects which are embedded in the culture of Europe and of the nations concerned, shows gaps which are of considerable significance.

How Does the European High School Achieve Its Goals? Practically all European countries are more centralized as regards the administration and supervision of their public and private schools than is the case in our country. Similarly, the national governments control to a considerable degree the standards which a student has to achieve

before he can proceed to one of the higher institutions, most of which are publicly financed. In some countries, such as France, these controls are partly exercised by inspectors who have considerable power over teachers and school officials. The teachers, in turn, play an important role in the maintenance of high academic standards, especially in such areas as most of the German Laender (states), where retention in grade is the consequence if a student fails in two or three important subjects. This involves repetition of all classes-including those where the student excelled. Repeated retention may lead to dismissal of a high-school student and thus limit tremendously his opportunity for professional advancement. Needless to say, students are well aware of these possibilities. Finally, and most important: the examination at the end of the secondary-school course is an indirect but immensely effective means of achieving the school system's goals. Scandinavia's state examination system, the French Baccalauréat, and the German Abitur are known to have a dominating influence on the work of each school in those parts of the world. Actually, in many parts of Europe, the teacher is a person whose primary function is enforcement of standards which are both high and inflexi-

The European High-School Teacher: Strengths and Weaknesses. Traditionally and even today, the training of the European high-school teacher is primarily academic. Reform plans in various countries indicate a trend in the direction of more education courses and increased practiceteaching requirements. Yet the high-school teacher's background, as well as his certification for teaching, is still tied to one or several subject-matter fields. Almost invariably, we noted that teachers were assigned to these subjects. The danger here is that the teacher is more interested in furthering his field than in promoting personality development among his students.

But a teacher who is well-prepared in his subject and assigned solely to classwork in his specialty feels relatively secure. He is thus able to concentrate on the work of his students, rather than on a day-to-day study needed to make up for inadequate background. Aided in some countries by a shorter school day, teachers were found to be spending considerable time on lesson preparation and correction of papers. Lecturing in class is often of superior quality and, although the teaching of methods is not so widespread in the preparation of high-school teachers as it is in America, the teacher's solid academic background facilitates adaptation to progressive techniques. An illustration was a German music teacher's extremely skillful use of a wirerecorder in guiding critical evaluation by the class of its own singing. This is remarkable in a country where relatively little instruction is provided for teachers in audiovisual techniques and comparatively little equipment is available. Similarly, while visiting a Swiss school, our group noted with interest the efficient use of a class excursion as a starting point for writing experiences-once again, a surprising departure from the strictly academic, subjectcentered pattern.

What About Provision, in Europe, for Testing and Counseling? In the American high school, the choice to be made by each student each year or each semester among a large number of courses demonstrates clearly the need for guidance. In Europe, the opportunity for choice of a school type represents the principal provision made for adjusting the student's educational plan to his abilities and interests. Once this decision is made, he and his classmates of the same grade level follow the same program, and there is little room for electives or for other differentiations. Following graduation, the university student immediately specializes in the particular field which has been somewhat predetermined by the type of high school from which he comes.

In Holland, for example, the Gymnasium beta has specialized in mathematics and science, and its graduates likely will be best prepared for careers in physics, chemistry, medicine, and so on, for which the Gymnasium alpha gives less preparation. Having been under close supervision throughout his high-school career, the European college student is deemed ready, as he enters higher education, for complete freedom and pursues his studies as he sees fit. He is unhindered by roll calls and class examinations—and unassisted by counseling.

On the surface, this system removes a few -but certainly not all-of the decisions to which guidance, as we know it, could make valuable contributions. Educators in my group, aware that intelligence testing under Binet was practiced early in France and aware of the great contributions made in psychology by Germans and Austrians, were startled by the inadequate provisions for educational testing we found in most systems. One German schoolman explained his attitudes by saying that a Klassenlehrer (home-room teacher) who has spent a year and more with a group of twenty-five students knows these young people well and needs no test results. This basic mistrust of test results, as much as the particular organization of schools in European countries, seems to be the reason for the comparative slowness in the progress of the guidance movement there.

#### Conclusion

What was said above does not prove the total superiority of the European high school. The selective-admissions policy of that institution and the constant screening process typical of virtually all secondary schools leave them with a limited student body and exclude a tremendous number of adolescents. However, with its selected group, with the small class size thus possible, and with the very limited number of subjects taught, the European high school does a remarkable job of preparation for

higher education. We may well have reservations about the extent to which examinations, memory work, and drill should be utilized, but it is hard to deny that some benefits are derived by the European high-school student which his American counterpart does not have.

The basic philosophy of the European secondary school, which attempts to create a small intellectual elite, is in clear contrast with our concept of equality of educational opportunity for all children. In the field of organization, Europe's system of forcing the student to choose between several types of schools is regarded, even by many European educators, as being inferior to our system of permitting students to select from many electives within the same school. In the training of secondaryschool teachers, our emphasis on pedagogical background is similarly a point of strength which we have no reason to surrender. There are, on the other hand, areas in which we can learn from Europe's secondary schools.

1. Foremost among these is, in my opinion, the emphasis on thorough training of high-school teachers in their academic subjects and the policy of school authorities to assign teachers solely to classes which they are prepared to instruct. In states offering a high-school teaching credential not now specifying the major and minor, such indication of the teaching fields seems desirable. While the large variety of classes offered in our high schools renders such a policy difficult and costly, nothing is gained by having a class taught by a teacher whose actual qualifications lie in an unrelated field.

2. Staffed with teachers who are better prepared academically, our high schools can offer to the intellectually gifted child righer courses in academic subjects without forcing all children into such instruction, without placing in special schools children planning on college careers, and without sacrificing gains made in vocational areas, extraclass activities, and training for citizenship.

3. There are types of classes, such as foreign languages, where methods in European schools have reached a high degree of development. In other fields, such as the commercial subjects, our educators have experience far exceeding that of some of their European colleagues. Even within each academic discipline and in such domains as counseling, textbook construction, supervision, and so on, each school system has unique strengths from which others could learn. Added exchange of experiences between groups of American educators and their exact European counterparts would be immensely profitable to both sides.

By raising standards in the academic classes of our high schools to approach—I am not saying, to equal—those characteristic of our friends across the ocean, we will send to college a larger percentage of students able to cope with the demands made upon them in higher education. This is not only most desirable generally, in view of our need for skilled personnel, but we must remember that some of our university students will turn to teaching after graduation. Hence the lessons we can learn from Europe will progressively improve our American system of public secondary education for all children.

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<sup>...</sup> There is perhaps no more promising feature (in American life) than the fermentation which for a dozen years or more has been going on among the teachers. In whatever sphere of education their function may lie, there is to be seen among them a really inspiring amount of searching of the heart about the highest concerns of their profession. . . . The teachers of this country, one may say, have its future in their hands.—William James.

### How Can We Develop the S.Q.?

By JAMES A. BOYD

EDUCATION FOR THE WHOLE CHILD is not a new phrase among the educators, but the technique and methods of accomplishment are quite different from school to school. It is no secret that pupils learn some things thoroughly, effectively, and quickly from sources other than the classroom. Therefore, it is not sufficient to consider classroom instruction as the end-all in educating the whole child. Where, in a planned program and under supervision, does a pupil practice working with others, recognizing individual rights and tastes, learning to cooperate and to accept responsibility, helping others, and developing a sense of fair play? Are these and other social traits embodied in an S.Q. (social quotient)?

For some time now colleges and industrial organizations have recognized that the successful student or worker needs more than skill and knowledge to be a success. He must be able to work and to get along with others. In other words, he must have a well-developed S.Q. At Newton High School the need for experience for such development is answered in many ways, perhaps most effectively within the realm of out-ofclass activities. Of the many, one will serve to illustrate how pupils may grow, even as

they play.

Frequently, the student government legislature sponsors a dance. For each dance, about 100 interested young people sign up to work on the music and entertainment, decoration, hospitality, refreshment, publicity, or ticket committee. The pupils serve voluntarily, certainly receive no school credits, and meet after school hours. At the first meeting the faculty adviser gives instruction in the duties and formation of each committee. The central chairman, appointed by the president of the School Associates, selects chairmen for the various committees. Once organized, the pupils plan and conduct their own meetings. How they fulfill the needs and duties of their committees is their responsibility. The faculty adviser is available for consultation at all times, but not to dictate the answers. When the pupils realize that no teacher is going to tell them what to do, they become motivated by pride in accomplishment-and the desire for approval of fellow students.

Every effort is made to integrate the dance committees with the rest of the school. Pupils from the art department assist in making block prints for posters; others from the home economics department assist in serving refreshments or in cutting cloth for decorations; those from the music department advise on music and entertainment; volunteers from the visual aids department furnish material for publicity; and the pupil managers in home rooms sell the tickets.

For a recent dance, over 300 pupils and 107 teachers shared in this committeework. During the week following the dance, each committee chairman wrote a personal report on the work of his committee. One question to be answered was, "What benefit have you gained by working as chairman of this committee?" Here are some typical comments:

### EDITOR'S NOTE

As you might expect, the S.O. means social quotient. Pupils are apt to develop their S.Q. quickly and effectively in situations beyond the classroom. A consideration of the means of developing the S.Q. outside of the classroom led the author, who is on the faculty of the Newton High School, Newtonville, Mass., to write this article.

"Being chairman of a school event such as this has taught me several things. I have learned the importance of organization in carrying out a large project involving many people. The valuable experience of committeework, of which I had had none, is a great asset in planning finances and in future committeework. These two factors, organization and experience, will always be in the back of my mind when I take on responsibilities in years to come. I feel that many pupils, including myself, have learned how to work better with others."

"I received the necessary training on how to work with students and teachers to get a job done. Also I learned not to depend too much on other students, for I might get alibis instead of results."

"I found out which students were sincerely interested in service to the school and which ones were just looking for glory. I received much experience in handling money and in writing reports."

For many pupils, membership on the dance committee was the first step toward leadership. Looking back over a six-year period, we are gratified to note the number of junior and senior class officers, presidents of the school legislature, and so on, who first gained recognition for leadership qualities via a dance committee. And one pupil who, in his senior year for the first time in his high school career joined a dance committee, enjoyed it so much that he tried out for the annual school musical and was assigned a leading part. Today he is the president of his college freshman class.

Occasionally the guidance office has recommended pupils who need to learn how to mix or pupils who have failed to become acquainted. We always find a place for boys and girls who want to serve!

### Roller Skating for Schools

By MILTON S. POPE (Indian Lake, N.Y.)

One of the finest activities it has been the good fortune of Indian Lake Central School to introduce lately has been roller skating, both as a school and as a community project. It is one of the finest noonhour activities possible and with the new plastic rollers on skates it does not hurt the gym floor.

It started in our school when three girls became interested and got our physical director to order their skates. It caught on like fire, and soon fifty of our students had skates. The school does not own any skates but does encourage the program a great deal. Many parents became interested and ordered skates. Now one evening a week you are apt to see mother and daughter skating together with regular skating music provided by long-playing records.

Girls were the biggest supporters of this program at first, but now boys are beginning to get in on it. In grades 2 to 12, roller skating has become a very popular program. Older students buy mostly the shoe skates, younger ones the clamp-on type. Whatever the type, they all are enjoying themselves and we are all happy about it.

# We Didn't Play Post Office

By ROBERT E. POTTER

WHEN I DECIDED to teach my classes a unit on the postal services, I discovered that there was no satisfactory text material available for high-school use. For example, an extensive survey of English and businesspractice textbooks revealed none which instructed students to address an envelope in the manner which the Post Office Department requests! The pamphlets put out by the department are too technical for school use and lack illustrative material. The one school-oriented publication, done by the California Board of Education in 1992, is very out of date and does not expand its statements with examples suitable for easy understanding.

Consequently, the first problem to be solved before I could teach a unit on the post office was to produce the text material which the students could use as a source of basic information. I wanted to include not only sections on how to address and wrap mail but also information on the various classes of mail and the rates for them; on the special services, such as air mail, special delivery, special handling, registered and certified mail, insured mail, and money orders; on unmailable matter and delivery restrictions; on philatelic services and postal savings; and on other miscellaneous subjects related to the postal service. This meant rewriting portions of the post-office manual and other postal publications, reducing the technical, legal language to something readily understandable by junior-high-school students. Of course, in any such simplification there is always the danger of inaccuracy. To avoid errors, I had my drafts of the text criticized by the local postmaster. He suggested certain clarifications which had been found helpful in explaining the regulations to patrons. Other teachers reviewed the manuscript for readability and practicality.

Finally it was ready to be tried out on a class. The mimeographed manuscript was about twenty single-spaced pages. The material was still in trial form, with revisions to be made as a result of my experience with teaching the unit and the criticisms of the students.

The sophomores were enthusiastic about the unit. They finished reading the manual far ahead of the assignment schedule, and the discussions were always lively, with most of the students participating frequently. Since none of them had had much information about the post office before they had done the reading and since all of them had had some experience with the postal service, no student was in a position to dominate the discussion or monopolize the role of "resource expert."

We were able to take advantage of a number of visual aids during the unit. I found that the visual aids catalogue of the University of Illinois listed a number of films and filmstrips which covered the post office and its activities. I took advantage of my proximity to the visual aids office to

### EDITOR'S NOTE

If you think there are certain implications in the title that have to do with a parlor game, let us make it clear that this article actually has to do with the post office as a teaching unit. When the author says "We didn't play post office," he means that they worked at

The writer is assistant professor of education at the University of Florida. Formerly, he was an instructor in the University of Illinois High School. preview all of these films and filmstrips and selected several which I felt most suitable for my classes. One of these films was a silent movie, Post Office, issued by the Educational Film Service. Since I was well acquainted by then with the post office, I was able to utilize it, providing my own "sound track." I found it the most effective of the visual aids which I used. Of the sound films, one entitled Your Postal Service, done by the March of Time-Forum Films, had the greatest effect, demonstrating to my students the complexity of a great city post office. My major criticism of it was the overly dramatic manner in which the work of the postal inspectors was presented. (These and other visual aids are listed at the end of this article.)

During the time that we were working on the unit, there chanced to be a number of items in the newspapers about the post office, running from an announcement of a new service called "Certified Mail" to stories about postal frauds. Each time one of these articles would appear, several students would show up in class the next day with the clippings. This gave us an opportunity for starting a bulletin board, which grew as the students progressed. Magazine articles and pictures helped build up the exhibit, and when a student in another class received a chain letter, he gave it to us to be posted as a most exciting part of the exhibit.

Since the students finished their reading well ahead of schedule and were eager for more information, they undertook individual research on topics related to the post office. Some were historical, such as "Ben Franklin and the Post Office," "Abe Lincoln, Postmaster," and "The Pony Express." Others dealt with special postal activities, including "The Universal Postal Union" and "Making Stamps." The results of this research were reported to the class orally. When two of the boys brought in their stamp collections to illustrate their talks, so much interest was generated that

a philatelist club was organized, with membership extended to students throughout the school.

The high point of the unit came when we made a visit to the local post office. Our tour began as if we were regular patrons of the post office. Our stamp collectors bought single commemorative stamps, blocks of stamps, and even plate number blocks, all of which they found the post office held back for the accommodation of collectors. We pretended to register a letter, while the clerk told us how much it would cost for each type of service and what the advantages were. We filled out a moneyorder application, and the clerk at the money-order window showed us how our money order would be made out. A regular patron told us why he preferred a lockbox in the post office to carrier delivery, even though it cost him more.

Finally we went to the workroom of the post office, where the supervisor of mails gave us a complete tour, explaining what happened to a letter from the time it was dropped through the slot in the front of the office until it went out the back door on its way to the train. He demonstrated the canceling and tying machines, and the students marveled at the swiftness at which veteran clerks "cased up" the mail in cases of 64 to 128 pigeonholes. Then we followed the course of the mail from the time it arrived until it was ready to go out on the parcel-post truck or in the carrier's mailbag.

One very interesting experience was visiting the "nixie" desk, where an employee tries to straighten out the mail which has insufficient or confused addresses. We happened to be visiting the post office just at the time when University of Illinois students were returning from their between-semester vacation. One tradition among the university students is to leave self-addressed postal cards with their instructors at the time of the final exam, putting their names and the words "Exam grade" and "Final

grade" on the message side of the cards. The instructors fill in the appropriate grades and drop the cards in the nearest mailbox so that the students can get their grades before they return to the university. We discovered the man at the nixie desk was literally swamped with these cards—completely filled in except that students had forgotten to put addresses on the address side and the instructors had not turned the cards over to see if they had been addressed.

One of these unaddressed cards had the words "Smith, German 101, Exam Grade E, Final Grade E." When it was shown to our class, one of my students remarked, "Anybody who's dumb enough to forget to put his name on his card deserves to flunk."

But the clerk on the nixie desk had one which topped even that. He handed us another postal card with its address side perfectly blank. The message was from a university student who signed his note "Bud." It was an urgent plea to his father. Bud had lost his wallet on the way back to college, and he had only thirty-five cents until father came through with additional funds. We were halfway between tears and laughter as we wondered how Bud felt as he waited in vain for that badly needed cash! There could never have been a more effective lesson on the importance of addressing the postal card before writing the message, to avoid making the oversight which thousands of card writers make every

We had fortunately timed our visit at the post office to coincide with the arrival of the highway post office. We were permitted to walk through this rolling post office and see how mail is handled between the small towns on a postal route. We were astounded to discover that the converted bus we saw had already traveled over a million and a half miles in the past ten years. (If we had not visited the highway post office, we would have scheduled a trip to visit a rail-way post office.)

After our tour was concluded, we raised all the questions which had come up in our discussions and which had not been answered during the tour. Even the broad knowledge and experience of the assistant postmaster and the supervisor of mails were taxed by the questions of these ninth graders. When we left and thanked them, the supervisor of mails replied, "It's a pleasure to take students of this age through the post office. We feel they're going to be able to use our facilities better and that we're really helping ourselves." A concluding activity for the class was writing letters to the postmaster, assistant postmaster, and the supervisor of mails, thanking them for the guided tour. Of course, attention was given to the proper addressing of the envelope as well as to the construction of the letter.

After I had taught the unit three times, I revised the text material and sent it to the Post Office Department for official criticism and review. The manuscript was examined by various bureaus, and judging from the number of comments, marks, and rewritings, they gave it serious attention. They rectified a number of technical errors and suggested several additions and deletions. The corrected manuscript (which I hope may some day be published with accompanying exercises and a teacher's manual) will be the basis for future post-office units designed to give my students a chance to get the most for their "post-office" money.

With less elaborate preparation, teachers interested in teaching students about the postal service could improvise similar teaching materials by using a free post-office pamphlet, entitled, "Domestic Postage Rates and Postal Information, Form 3550." This pamphlet gives the basic information about addressing mail, wrapping parcels, rates, classifications, and some of the special services such as air mail, special delivery, insured mail, special handling, and registered mail. Other free pamphlets give information about the Postal Savings system and

other phases of the postal services. These free materials, coupled with a copy of chapters 1 and 2 of the "Postal Manual," published as a pamphlet selling for 65 cents, would give the minimum amount of information necessary for classes to start

understanding the postal system.

In schools where social studies and English are combined in a single course, this type of unit would fit admirably, lending itself to a great deal of activity which might be difficult to justify in an English class: discussions of the role of the postal service and whether it should be a profit-making or a service function of the government; organization and operation of a club such as a philatelic club; study of the vocational opportunities offered by the post office; investigation of the effect of the Universal Postal Union and various postal conventions upon international relations; and study of the history of the Post Office Department.

If this sort of unit were taught widely, it would not only be of value to the individuals who learn how to get the greatest benefit from their post office but it would contribute to making the postal service a more effective operation. Certainly, if it is part of our responsibility as English teachers to teach children how to write good letters, then it is equally important to see that the letters our students are going to write are handled with the greatest possible dispatch and care. The degree to which our public is educated to utilize all the postal services effectively may well be one of the most important factors in the efficiency of the United States Post Office.

#### ANNOTATED LIST OF VISUAL AIDS

Filmstrips

1. The Mailman, black and white, Encyclopaedia Britannica Films. Shots from Mailman movie. Contains question slides and review section.

a. Post Office Department, black and white, Young America Films. Very general in coverage. Mentions classes of mail and special services. The size of the Post Office Department and the postal service as a service mentioned on one occasion. Review section. Questions.

g. The Postman, color, Society of Visual Education. Very simple. Good for primary or elementary

4. Railroads and Our Mail, color, 26 frames. Upper and middle grades. Free copies given to any school by School and College Service, Association of American Railroads, Transportation Building, Washington 6, D.C. Shows work of trains in carrying mail. Apparently the distribution of this filmstrip is tied in with the desire of the railroads for increased payment for carrying mail.

### Motion pictures

1. Letter to Grandmother, 20 minutes, sound, Coronet Instructional Films. Shows letter during its handling from the time a little girl mails it until it is delivered to a rural box. For primary and

intermediate grades.

2. Mailman, 11 minutes, sound, Encyclopaedia Britannica Films. Emphasizes importance of mail in our daily lives and shows mailman's relation to mail service. Shows mailman casing mail, relays carried out by truck for the mailman, registered mail, mail orders and money orders, special delivery. Part of the movie devoted to the work of the rural carrier. Told in very simple language. For intermediate, junior high, and high school.

3. Pony Express, 11 minutes, sound, Eastman Kodak Co. Historical film, showing pony express at

work. For intermediate and junior high.

4. Your Postal Service, 22 minutes, sound, March of Time-Forum Films. Describes the workings of the post office in the large city and the work of the postal inspectors. Stresses size of postal service. Shows handling of mail and need for good wrapping and careful addressing. Postmaster General Donaldson introduced. Deficit mentioned and attributed in part to government mail and post cards. For intermediate, junior high, high school, and adults.

5. Post Office, 15 minutes, silent, Educational Film Service. Shows a letter from the time it is mailed in a rural box until it is delivered in another city. Few titles given, leaving opportunity for teacher participation. If teacher knows a little about the processing of mail, this film makes an excellent basis for a lecture discussion. For primary, intermediate, junior high school, perhaps high

school.

### Editorial

### New Model: the 1960 Secondary School

¶By 1960, most major school-plant construction programs planned to accommodate the growing school population in the elementary grades will have been completed. The decade of 1960 to 1970 will similarly require an expansion of school-plant construction for secondary-school youth—facilities which will permit the education of five students where there are now three. It is not too soon to be thinking through the complexion of the "new model"—the one we may soon be dedicating to the secondary youth of the next hundred years. Few modern buildings escape the "glorious" fate of at least one centennial celebration. It behooves all of us to plan well, that future school administrators may escape less glorious celebrations—celebrations which may give emphasis to our own servitude to ideas long past their usefulness.

¶It is, therefore, timely that we consider with our own high-school faculties what may be the component parts of the new model—the 1960 secondary school. Size of building and classes, our purposes, our program and organization, and utilization of the school plant around the clock all play their roles in fashioning the high schools of the future. The school plant now being planned must be constructed so as to be the servant of the kind of school program designed for future generations. It is our purpose here to raise pertinent questions in each of these four broad areas but not to give authoritative answers.

The trend toward single-story construction and campus-type plans requires careful consideration of optimum building size. Land and site development for such construction is more extensive. The length of the school day has to be modified to permit more leisurely passing between class units. With the upsurge of secondary-school enrollments class sizes are bound to increase. An optimum class size for efficient instruction in one subject may not be the same in another subject. In the future secondary school, movies and television may permit larger class size in subject areas suited to this form of instruction. If instructional procedures are to change greatly from the typical question-and-answer recitation pattern, room sizes will need to vary, and special facilities will need to be planned accordingly.

¶Most school administrators will accept a simple statement of purpose with little questioning. They may not, however, implement this philosophy by modifying the school program. Records show that it usually takes fifty years for a new philosophy to reach actual practice. It is important that we translate our present and future purposes into specifications for our new secondary-school buildings. When we say we believe the fundamental purpose of public education is to provide educational op-

portunity for every student able to benefit from instruction, we need also to ask these questions:

Do we mean to provide a building that will be for the use of the whole community?

Do we expect to provide all of our students with an opportunity to acquire vocational knowledge, techniques, and skills?

Do we plan to provide special opportunities for the slow and for the gifted?

Do we plan to have sufficient school facilities to develop all of our students' full potentialities—academic and social?

Do we expect to have the kind of program which is intellectually stimulating to all pupils?

An affirmative answer to the foregoing questions imposes upon us some very specific considerations in planning our new secondary school plants for the future.

Recently published reports on program and organization increasingly classify secondary-school curriculum into broad areas. The multiple-course pattern (college-commercial-vocational) and the cafeteria approach (free elections with abundance) are both giving way. N. L. Englehardt in his booklet, "Planning Secondary Schools for General Education Programs," makes note of this change by proposing that high-school planners consider building "schools within schools." In such a building a high school is divided into several unit schools, 250 to a unit, each with its own faculty assigned to teaching the requirements of the general education program. Other provocative questions need to be answered about administrative organization: the place of the department head, the type of organization for guidance, and the delegation of administrative responsibilities. The present discernible trend toward decentralizing the library, the study halls, and even the dining halls needs careful review when new secondary school buildings are being planned.

The need for utilization of the school plant around the clock for community, adult, and evening-school use, imposes upon administrators the need for better planning. The use of classrooms for resting stations, when the teacher is free for other duties, can no longer be condoned. Offices can be provided more cheaply if they are planned also as conference rooms available to all teachers. Multiple use of corridor space, assembly rooms, lunchrooms, and the like, requires careful planning. Even the school day (yea! even the school year) may have to be modified to permit more effective use of school plant in the decades ahead. [See also The Clearing House for January, p. 275.]

These are a few of the challenges if secondary school administrators are to prepare for the tremendous building program. Now is the time to plan the "new model" so that the curriculum can dictate the specifications of the school building.

-ERNEST G. LAKE

### Some Proposals of Jefferson for an Educational System

By SAMUEL A. PLEASANTS

This month we observe the anniversary of the birth of Thomas Jefferson—politician, statesman, diplomat, humanist, and educator.

As an educator Jefferson belonged to the classicist school, "for to Thomas Jefferson the classics had been the guiding element of his early schooling. They had become one of the most important tools of the continued self-education which he carried on to the end of his days. Through the classics, he had learned to elaborate his empirical and positivistic understanding of the history of man. He had seen him struggling with evil forces, succumbing to them and standing up against them with human dignity. . . . He had seen through the blinding glamour of fame and alleged greatness."

According to Jefferson, the task of the social culture was to make basic knowledge, such as the simple tools of history, arithmetic, and writing, available in the public school system. Those students who indicated a mastery of these subjects would go on to the secondary schools, and from there only a very small restricted group would go on to the university. This university would offer to American youths "a truly classical and solid education."

Among his early considerations for a Virginia school system was the study of Greek and Latin—"The learning of Greek and Latin, I am told, is going into disuse in Europe. . . . It would be ill judged in us to follow their example in this instance." Latin and Greek were considered by Jefferson to be the "foundation preparatory for

the sciences," making the secondary schools which taught them a kind of "portico of entry to the university." Jefferson felt that the study of ancient languages was one of the basic tools and should be acquired early, rather than in the university. But as he points out, this does not mean a "hypercritical knowledge of the Latin and Greek languages" but simply to "possess a substantial understanding of their authors."
"... The monitory history of the ancient world ... teaches us the awful lesson that no nation is permitted to live in ignorance with impunity."

In short it is only the diffusion of knowledge that will make men free.

The capstone to Jefferson's pyramid of public education was to be the university. All of his adult life Jefferson had labored for the general diffusion of education among the people of this country, and he gave himself completely to establishment of a university at Charlottesville in the last years of a long and busy life. He planned for it at every step—he was the architect, land-scape artist, maker of the curriculum, and donor of the first library of 6,800 books. He carried the project through the state legislature and lived to see it open its doors in 1825 to its first student body. Shortly be-

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

The author of this short article, which was written in observance of the birthday of Thomas Jefferson this month, is an instructor in social science at Fairleigh Dickinson College in New Jersey.

<sup>\*</sup> Karl Lehmann, Thomas Jefferson, American Humanist (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1947), p. 189.

fore his death he directed the following epitaph to be placed upon his tombstone:

Thomas Jefferson Author

Of the Declaration of American Independence The Statute of Virginia For religious freedom, and Father of the University of Virginia

We of the twentieth century in a world seeming to grow dark around us can appreciate Jefferson's thoughts on a world similarly darkened toward the end of his life "... Knolege is power, knolege is safety ... knolege is happiness," he wrote. Jefferson felt that it was for America to keep alive the flame of civilization in a culture of free peoples. "We have seen . . . a complete eclipse of the human mind continuing for centuries. And this, too, by swarms of the same northern barbarians . . . taking possession . . . of the civilized world. . . . The art of printing alone, and the vast dissemination of books, will maintain the mind where it is. . . And should the cloud . . . of despotism again obscure the liberties . . . of Europe, this country remains to preserve and restore light and liberty to them. . . "

### Developing Effective Study Habits

There is an erroneous idea current among Americans concerning the importance of study. Some misguided parents discourage boys and girls from study. The popular opinion seems to contend that a pupil who is a poor student stands an equal chance of being a success in life. Statistics show that the opposite is the fact: that a person who does well in his school work is likely to be a person who will succeed in his business or professional work. This finding needs to be made clear to pupils in order to arouse them to use better study habits.

Another common cause of poor study habits is the fact that many of our young people have never learned to settle down and accomplish any type of task that is difficult or uninteresting to them. The present-day home asks little, if anything, from youth in the way of regular duties or contribution to the support of the family. The schools, too, have required little in the way of assignments to be done after school hours.

It is the teacher's task, then, to build a scholarly attitude in students by developing in them efficient study habits. Teachers, however, especially in high school and college, have made the sad mistake of thinking that students are proficient in the art of studying. What little method many of the students have is self-taught and causes loss of time and, what is more important, loss of learning. There are basic study habits that students need to know. Consequently it will be time well spent, at no matter what level of his education we meet him, to orient the student into methods of profitable study.

The first attack on the problem of study improvement has to do with attitudes, volition, and motivation. Students' attitudes toward study are more important than are specific study habits. Oftentimes the distinction between a good and a poor student is not so much the matter of native ability as it is a result of conscious effort. Motives exert a profound influence on the learner; under certain motivational conditions marked improvement is evident in the work of students who under ordinary circumstances simply do not try. Wanting to learn, in itself, makes learning easier. Accordingly the teacher must demonstrate that the subjects offered will benefit the student in helping him learn both how to live and how to make a living. Teachers should specifically exert their skill to motivate, arouse, sustain, and direct the individual student's efforts and motives. Students should be brought to realize that their work will be improved if they will approach their study periods with determination, good will, cheerful effort, and open-

Students should realize that study time is opportunity time. The fact that the students would not be willing to give up their already acquired knowledge makes it reasonable for them to consider how much they will appreciate more knowledge. Teachers should reason with boys and girls and show them that knowledge will not be handed out to them on a silver tray, bequeathed to them, or poured into them. They must reach out for it. They must study to acquire it.—Sister Mary Xavier, O.S.U., in the School Review.

## Selective Admission to Industrial Arts Classes

By IRVIN LATHROP

What to no with all of the students? This is a question that grows more perplexing each year. The shop teachers have probably noticed the squeeze more than teachers in other areas. The reason is obvious: New machines cannot be bought like new text-books to take care of the load.

When classes become too large, it is of course difficult to promote good safety practices. Moreover, discipline and learning inevitably suffer too.

In shopwork, the student is required to learn a great deal of new material. Because the student has so much to learn, the size of the class is important. With the growing school enrollment in Ottumwa, Iowa, more students were signing up for industrial arts than we could safely handle. Some method of selection had to be found. Selection of students on the "first come first served" basis is not always wise or fair. Too often a student who would succeed and benefit is left out, while a less deserving student is admitted and fails.

After talking with shop teachers elsewhere, we learned that other schools shared a similar problem. Realizing that this situation would grow with each year's enlarging enrollment, we decided to work out a new method for selecting students for classes in printing.

This method had to be accurate and yet had to be simple enough to be used by the busy teacher. We decided to use a battery of standardized tests and make up tables to predict before he enrolled how well a student would do in class.

Although the technique was worked out for a printing class, suitable tests and criteria are now being devised for other areas in industrial arts.

### Criteria

In beginning printing the student is taught typography, design, presswork, and a little silk-screen printing. In addition to this he is given related material in mathematics, English, spelling, and the socialeconomic values of the printing trade.

In devising a selective scheme, we had to set up suitable criteria to judge the tests we were going to give. We took the student's final grade and divided it into three parts. This was our criteria. (The grade was split because we felt we could get a better selection this way.)

The first criterion was the marks earned on paper-and-pencil tests, made up of questions from the various units in the text.

The second criterion was the marks the students earned on a series of speed tests

### EDITOR'S NOTE

While the author was teaching printing in the Ottumwa, Iowa, High School, he had the problem of deciding which students to admit and which to reject for the class. As a result of his experiences, he was prompted to do research on the problem. Much of this article is a distillation of his research for his master's degree at Iowa State.

spaced throughout the semester, averaging one a week. The tests were short paragraphs or poems to be set in type. The students were to set all they could in thirty minutes. The score was the number of words set minus the mistakes. They were scored this way to stress accuracy as well as speed.

As in other areas of industrial arts, we had assigned projects for the studentsexercises the student set by himself and then corrected until he thought there were no mistakes. This was our third criterion. They could be done just as fast as the student's ability allowed and were graded on the basis of the number turned in and the number of mistakes made.

The marks in all three of these divisions were given in letter grades to which numbers were later assigned for computation.

### Prediction Tests

As do most other school systems in this country, the Ottumwa High School had always used many standardized tests. We soon realized that these would be too time consuming to give and would not give the answers to the things that we were trying to measure. So we devised our own battery of tests. We tried to pick ones which would be easy to give, which required less than an hour's time to complete, and which were easily scored. In some school systems many of these test results would be available from the guidance office. The tests used were chosen because it was felt they would give reliable prediction results.

The first was the Otis Quick Scoring Test of Mental Ability, Form Bm. It was given to the students as a group during the regular class period. The raw scores were converted to I.Q.'s for ease of use and better

understanding.

The second test was the Revised Minnesota Paper Form Board Test, Series MA. This is designed to measure a student's ability to see spatial relations, and requires a certain amount of abstract thinking. While a great deal of abstract thinking is not essential in printing, we feel that it is an attribute. For the computation, the raw score was used.

The third test used was the O'Connor Finger Dexterity Test. The student places three pegs in each of 100 holes on the board as fast as he can. The test is timed with a stop watch. The time taken to complete the first half is noted while he keeps on working until finished. The total time is noted. The time taken to complete the first half is then subtracted from the total. This gives the time for the second half. This figure is multiplied by 1.1 to correct for any practice effect. The two figures are then added together, giving us the total time or raw score. The lower the time, the better the score.

The last test used was the O'Connor Tweezer Dexterity Test. The student simply places one peg in each of 100 holes as fast as he can with the aid of tweezers. This is also timed with a stop watch and the total time noted. This is the raw score.

### Correlations

Before making up the prediction tables, correlations were made to compare the tests with the criteria. We wanted to see which tests could be used with which criteria. These correlations are given in Table 1, and are simply the relation of the prediction tests to the criteria. The higher the number, the better the correlation.

By looking at Table 1 we can see that some of the tests, although good for measuring one thing, did not do a good job in another category. For the paper-and-pencil tests we could use the I.O. and finger dexterity tests to predict success, but could not use the other two.

In other divisions more than two tests gave a significant correlation. If these were not highly significant, they were dropped from further computation. We did not want to use any more than two tests for any one criterion as this would make the tables too complicated. By using just the highly significant correlations, we had two criteria with three tests. To eliminate one of these, mul-

TABLE 1. RELATION OF PREDICTION TESTS TO CRITERIA

Colonia.	Tests			
Criteria	Otis I.Q.	M.P.F.B.	Finger Dexterity	Tweezer Dexterit
Paper and pencil tests Speed tests	.388**	.144	306* 427**	160 411**

• Denotes significant correlation.

\*\* Denotes highly significant correlation.

tiple correlations were made. With these completed, one test score at a time was dropped from the computations to see if any significant loss of correlation would result. It was found that we could drop all but two tests in all of the categories. This made the tables simple two-way tables. This was important, as a selection method would be of no value if it was too complicated.

The statistical technique of discriminate analysis was used on each of the criteria or standards to make up prediction tables. These tables and the results on the student's tests were all that were needed to find his chances in 100 of obtaining a certain grade in printing.

### Conclusions

Now let us take an example. Suppose we have given the tests and want to find out if Johnny would be a good prospect for printing. If his I.Q. was 95 and he had a score of 260 on the finger dexterity test, we would first go to Table 2 to find his chances on paper-and-pencil tests. First look down the left-hand column and find 95. Next look in the column marked 260. By reading across and down, we see that Johnny has 3 chances in 100 of making an A, 18 chances in 100 of making a B, 51 chances in 100 of making a C, and 28 chances in 100 of making a D on his paper-and-pencil tests. This by itself does not indicate too much, but

TABLE 2. PREDICTION TABLE ON PAPER AND PENCIL TESTS

Oris I.L.			O'Connor Fi	nger Dexterity T	'est (in seconds)	
		220	260	300	340	380
	A	31 40 26	22	14		4
125	B C D	40	38	34	28	21
	C	26	35	44	49	51 24
	D	3	5		15	24
	A	20	13	7	4	2
115	В	38	33	27	20	13
	D	38 36 6	10	16	51 25	49
	D	6	10	16	25	49 36
	A	12	7	4	2	2
105	B C D	32	25	18	12	8
	C	45	18	51	48	41
	D	11	18	27	38	50
	A	6	3	2	1	0
95	B C D	25	18	11	7	4
	C	50	28	48	41	33
	D	19	28	48 39	51	33 63
	A	3	2	1	0	0
85	В	17	10	6	4	2
	C		47	40	31	22
	D	30	47	53	31	22 76

TABLE 3. PREDICTION TABLE ON SPEED TESTS

Minnesota Paper Form Bord		O'Connor Finger Dexterity Test (in seconds)						
		230	260	300	340	380		
	Α.	22	14	8	4	2		
	B C D	39	34	27	20	13		
50	C	33	44	47	48	45		
	D	6	8	17	27	45 35		
	F	0	0	1	i	5		
	A	15	9	5	2	1		
	В	36	29	22	15	9		
40	D	40	46	48 23	47 32	41		
	D	9	15	23	32	40		
	F	0	1	2	4	9		
	A	10	6	3	1	1		
	В	32	23	16	11	5		
30	C	13	48	47 30	42	35 46		
	D	13	21	30	. 39			
	F	1	2	4	7	13		
	A	7	3	2	1	0		
	В	25	18	11	6	4		
20		48	48 28	44 37	37 43 13	27		
	D	19			43	50		
	F		3	6	13	19		
	A	4	2	1	0	0		
	В	20 48	13	9	5	2		
10	C	48	45 35	37	29	22		
	D	25	35	43	49	49		
	F	3	5	10	17	27		

TABLE 4. PREDICTION TABLE ON PROJECTS

O'Connor Tweezer Denterity Test		O'Connor Finger Dexterity Test (in seconds)						
(in seconds)		230	260	300	340	380		
1 - y = 110	A	79	70 19	59 24	47 27	35 28		
300	B	15	19	24	27			
	D	6		12	17	22		
	D	1	3	5	9	15		
	A	69	58	46	35	25		
500	В	21	24	27	35 28	25 26		
	C	7	13	27 18	22	26		
	D	3	5	9	15	23		
	A	58	46	34	24	16		
700	В	24	27	28				
The state of the state of	C	13	18	23	27 26	23		
	D	5	9	34 28 23 15	23	33		
	A	45	* 34	24	16	10		
900	B	45	34	24	23	18		
	C	17	22	26	27			
	D	10	16	24	27 34	27 45		
	A	39	29	19	12	7		
1000	В	39 28	27	25	21	16		
	C	21	24	27	27	26		
	D	12	20	29	40	51		

with the tables in the other areas we can get a pretty good idea of how well Johnny will do in printing.

After we have found Johnny's chances on paper-and-pencil tests, we go on to speed tests and use the same procedure (Table 3). By now some pattern should have started to develop on Johnny.

When we have Johnny's chances of success in the first two areas we go to the last one and apply the same procedure (Table 4). Now we have Johnny's chances in 100 of obtaining certain grades in the three gen-

eral areas we used for standards. With this we should be able to get some kind of an indication of the type of student he will be.

If he ranked low in all three of these areas, perhaps he should be in another class where he could succeed. If the scores on the tests lie between the numbers given on the tables, you simply take the number closest to the one given.

When these tests are applied to the students before they are enrolled for a class or shortly after it has started, many problems of discipline and interest may be solved.

### Educational Objectives in Transition

One of the occupational diseases of educators is their habit of indulging in clichés and slogans. Perhaps the most common example is their incessant repetition of the need for purposes and objectives in education—a need that is expressed in such threadbare phrases as "education for democtacy" or "training for citizenship."

The danger in this kind of sloganizing is that it tends to substitute empty verbalisms for genuine meanings. While everyone agrees that purposes and objectives are important, educators too frequently seem satisfied merely to pay lip service to a few pleasant-sounding but obvious generalities. Having done so, they busily turn to more "practical" matters such as overcrowded schoolrooms, college entrance requirements, and other issues that plague them daily.

If educational objectives are important enough to notice at all, then they are important enough to deserve much more thoughtful and prolonged attention than they usually receive. True, this is by no means easy. On the contrary, it is one of the most difficult of tasks—so difficult, indeed, that the temptation is strong to turn to others that are much easier. And the reason why the task is difficult is that it is fundamentally philosophical—that

is, it requires examination of underlying beliefs about the meaning of education, the meaning of democracy, and particularly the meaning of the goals that ought to be established to guide every small or large practice.

The task is complicated still further by the fact that earlier formulations of purposes and objectives, even when they occasionally avoided superficiality, are no longer suitable to guide education. The reason for this is, of course, that the culture which education always serves has been undergoing tremendous change, and that this change in turn affects every facet of the elementary and secondary schools, the institutions of higher learning, and adult programs.

Objectives that may have been suitable even a decade or two ago are accordingly more or less obsolete today. They will be increasingly obsolete in the next decade. Hence the time is due—indeed, far overdue—when educators are obligated to use the hard thinking of philosophy to restudy and reformulate the objectives that should govern curricula, methodology, administration, and every other phase of the great cultural institution for which they are chiefly responsible.—Theodore Brameld in New York State Education.



NEW SLANT TO AN OLD PROBLEM: The committee on work-habits of the High School Principals Association surveyed work-study habits of students on the secondary level. A summary report of their findings appeared in December, in the education section of the New York Herald Tribune. The group concluded that along with the usual reading disability, another prime factor which produces poor scholastic results is lack of motivation. They felt that the latter contributes as much to the problem as do poor study habits of students.

The recommendations based on these findings for the improvement of the situation boil down to the following points: (1) Specially trained teachers should be assigned to the students who need help in diagnosing and correcting their reading problems and poor work-study habits. (2) The school librarian should be considered a key person in developing good work-study skills. (3) Pupils should be taught how to study for and take tests. (4) Guidance should be provided in the best methods of approaching homework. (5) Parents and teachers must co-operate in teaching the social skills.

TEACHING HIGH-SCHOOL MATHEMATICS: A recent N.E.A. Journal carried an article dealing with methodology in mathematics in the high schools. Two basic methods were evaluated in the light of the over-all achievement of students during a three-month period in algebra. Research indicates that of the two methods, the same amount of learning is arrived at, regardless of which method is used.

Briefly, the procedure is as follows: (a) the first method teaches via the verbalized, abstract, deductive manner, defining the terms and concepts and then showing how to use them in practical exercises, whereas (b) in the second plan the same material is taught from what is called an experiential, nonverbalized, concrete, and inductive point of view, whereby the pupils are led through experiences in volving applications of the concepts and thus by their own discovery are guided into verbalization of the concepts. The former is of course the traditional method. It is felt that for the brighter pupils with I.Q.'s of 117 or above, the second plan is more

significant, developing greater skill in operation and deeper understanding of concepts.

EVALUATING DRIVER EDUCATION PROGRAMS: According to the Texas Outlook, official organ of the Texas State Teachers Association, driver education in Texas schools is to be reviewed and evaluated in an effort to determine the efficacy of the program, particularly with respect to its effectiveness in cutting down the accident rate. Statistical proof is sought to show whether those who have had driver education courses evidence at least a go per cent reduction in accidents over the untrained drivers. Should the accident reduction rate be less, the program will be considered inadequate and in need of overhauling and revision.

STATISTICALLY SPEAKING: Even though enrollment in the nation's schools and colleges has reached an all-time high and even though the total number of students at all levels, in private and public institutions, has increased about 1,700,000 in the space of one year, the peak still has not been reached, according to statisticians. This startling fact appeared in a New York Herald Tribune account recently. The figure quoted in the report reaches a grand total of approximately 40,000,000 students, exclusive of specialized schools, such as nurses training schools and private commercial schools. The current figures listed in the article are as follows: (1) at the elementary level, for all schools, 29,000,000; (2) at high-school level, 7,700,000; and (3) in schools of higher education, some 2,800,000.

These figures pose an additional problem for the already acute teacher shortage and no solution for the alleviation of this shortage is as yet forthcoming. A conservative estimate predicts that roughly speaking about 2,000,000 elementary and secondary teachers will be needed to staff our schools in the next ten years. A not too comforting thought is that currently there is a need for about 55,000 teachers at all levels. In the light of this, one wonders about the future dilemma, if the forecasters are correct.

In line with this report, a magazine published by the Alberta Teachers Association (of Canada), ran an article which concluded, on the basis of research, that the best way of meeting the teacher shortage is to maintain high standards of certification and better salaries. In the long run, these two elements, it was found, attract and hold better teachers and tend to prevent a large percentage of teacher loss to other higher salaried positions outside of the teaching profession. This would appear to make sense.

JANE E. CORNISH

EBSTON'S NOTE: Good, bad, indifferent, or important, there is a great amount of counting studies and other research going on in the field of education. We think readers will be interested in brief, unqualified summaries of some main points in some of the findings. Lack of space prohibits much explanation of the methods used, the degree of accuracy, or conclusiveness, and sometimes even the scope of the study.

# The Televiewing Habits of Pupils

By DONALD G. TARBET

What has TV done to the boys and girls in our homes? Have they forgotten how to read or even play? Some people will insist that these are harmful effects of this age of TV. There is little doubt that young people are spending a lot of time in front of television sets.

On the other hand, many feel that TV is helping in the education of boys and girls. Students know more about world happenings. People in the news are becoming more real. A study which I conducted in 1951-52 showed that of the 1,500 students tested, the TV group was better informed on current affairs than the non-TV group. Other studies seem to show that television has not greatly affected the achievement of school children.

An interesting survey was conducted in a class in child growth and development at the University of North Carolina recently. A committee of three students, Leonard Storey Bullock, Douglas B. Dewing, and Anne M. McCabe, under the direction of their teacher, Mrs. W. W. Pierson, made a review of television habits of sixth-grade children. Some interesting items were discovered.

Children in four schools within a twelvemile radius of Chapel Hill were tested. To control for individual, sectional, and economic differences, one Negro school, one rural school, one small-town school, and one city school were chosen. Approximately 260 students were involved. Twenty-two questions were asked, to obtain the information. Instructions were given by one of the U.N.C. students and each question was read aloud while the sixth graders marked their choice of answers. They were told not to put their names on the questionnaires, so that they would feel freer to answer all questions honestly.

The mean age for the boys and girls in the four schools was 11.4 years. The girls outnumbered the boys by twenty. As was expected, the number having television sets in their homes was large. Seventy-five per cent of the students had sets in their homes, while 85 per cent of those who did not have sets watched television regularly at some other place. Most of the students who had sets in their homes also regularly watched television other places as well. Of the students who had sets in their homes, 85 per cent had had them for two years or over. It was felt that two years was a short enough time for them to remember their behavior before watching television and long enough for television habits to have developed.

The average viewing time during the fiveday school week for this group of students was three hours a day. This compares favorably with reports from other studies, in which viewing time ranged from two and a half to four hours a day. The students reported an average of three hours of viewing on Saturdays, but they seemed to spend

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

When we consider that television is such a new and widely used medium of communication, it is amazing that more research studies on the televiewing habits of pupils have not been carried on. We may have conceptions about the use of television by pupils that deviate from research findings. It was with this thought in mind that we first read this article. We hope you agree that the author has found out at least one thing about pupils' TV habits that fails to reflect your opinion. He is assistant professor of education, University of North Carolina. He mentions four researchers who contributed material on which the article is based. less time watching television on Sundays, as seventy students reported two hours and forty-four reported only one hour of viewing time. This brought the weekly average to about nineteen or twenty hours a week.

The most popular viewing time on week days was between the hours of 7:00 and 10:00 P.M. These hours included such programs as "I Love Lucy," "Topper," various theater programs, and, in general, programs which are considered to be on an adult level but which would not be considered undesirable programs for young viewers. The second most popular hours were between 5:00 and 7:00 P.M. The hours of 7:00 to 9:00 and 9:00 to 11:00 on Saturdays were about equal in popularity. At this time such programs as "Badge 714," "Jackie Gleason," and "George Gobel" were televised. The hours of 6:00 to 9:00 P.M. were the most popular time for viewing on Sundays. At this time such programs as "Ozzie and Harriet," "Private Secretary," and "Toast of the Town" were presented.

Considerable discussion as to parental regulation of TV viewing has occurred. Some say that parents do not regulate the programs or viewing hours of their family; in fact, some parents insist they can hardly see the programs they wish because of the demands of their children for favorite programs. On the other hand, others say that some parents are very strict in regulating the time that the set may be turned on. Of the students tested, 59 per cent were not allowed to watch television after 10:00 P.M. on weekday nights. The question could be raised if the late viewing by the other 41 per cent cut down on their sleeping hours. Of the students tested, 66 per cent were not allowed to view television at any time they wished, indicating that the majority of parents have realized the necessity for restricting viewing time. However, the remaining 34 per cent can present a problem.

For a number of years boys and girls were thought to be spending less and less time in the home. (This might also be said of

Mother and Dad.) Of the students questioned, 66 per cent watched television more often with their family, 22 per cent with their friends, and 11 per cent alone. This gives evidence to the argument that instead of weakening family ties, television actually may help to tie the family closer together.

What is the effect of television on homework? Of the students questioned, 67 per cent did their homework before watching television, 17 per cent while viewing, and 16 per cent after viewing. Thus the majority of the students did their required homework first. This is an indication of parental restrictions or proper study habits. No attempt was made to determine the techniques used by students who do homework while watching television programs.

Two questions were included in an effort to determine the reading habits of these students: "Do you read as much now as you did before you started watching TV?" and "How many books have you read for pleasure since you started watching TV?" Of the students tested, 84 per cent had read over two books for pleasure. There appeared to be no marked reduction in the amount of time spent in reading. It was therefore felt safe to say that television had not been detrimental to pleasure reading. Random comments and questions on the part of those administering the questionnaire showed that they had greatly underestimated the students' reading capacity. There were extensive programs in the schools and in the individual classrooms to promote reading for pleasure. Each classroom visited had its own small library. Maturation had reached the point at the sixth-grade level where reading is a pleasurable experience rather than a chore.

One of the main criticisms of television watching has been that it cuts down outdoor play. Of the students tested, 54 per cent spent as many hours out of doors now as they did before they started viewing television, but 51 per cent stayed out of doors only one hour or less a day.

The students were given the opportunity to express their choice of programs. They ranked them in the following order: mysteries, westerns, and comedies. They ranked the individual programs in the following order: "Disneyland," "George Gobel," and "I Love Lucy." The two rankings do not appear to agree, but the discrepancy may be accounted for by the popularity of a single program or the quality of staging.

Some interesting conclusions may be drawn from this survey. It would appear that an average of twenty hours of viewing television per week is not detrimental to pleasure reading or to academic grades. Of course, sectional differences may have affected these results. With proper training in the schools, harmful effects of television

can be diminished or overcome. But there does appear to be a decrease in the hours children spend out of doors. There was found to be more parental control of viewing time than might have been suspected.

The possibilities of television as yet have not been fully utilized. More and better use of television for educational purposes will change the picture. The educational television station of the University of North Carolina, WUNC-TV, is planning a series of programs designed for in-school viewing. Better utilization of present commercial and educational TV programs may be expected in the future. Teachers, parents, and students can work together to make television a vital part of the education of our boys and girls.

### Men v. Women Teachers—a Continuing Antagonism?

The fact is that the antagonism between men and women teachers is acute in so many schools that it is a serious detriment to teaching efficiency and professional unity. Open warfare has broken out in at least one school system, where the men have withdrawn from the school-wide teachers association and formed one of their own.

I would like to invite teachers to take a good, hard look at a problem which cannot be solved by ignoring it.

Increasing numbers of men are entering a field which has been considered a woman's province. The problem of the relationship between the sexes is likely to become worse as the balance between men and women teachers becomes more even.

Certainly no school system has all the sources of antagonism that are mentioned here, but I have never heard of a school which is free of all of them.

How serious is the antagonism?

Among women, I have found that an astonishing

number firmly believe that "teaching attracts second-rate men—the lazy, the mercenary, the incompetent."

A woman who has substituted for years in a large Midwestern city says she hates to take over a man's classroom. His desk is such a mess that even if he had left lesson plans she couldn't find them. But, she says, she's learned not to waste time looking—he doesn't have any.

"They don't seem to have any organization at all. I don't know how they manage to teach anything," she summarized, flatly.

How do the men feel? Candid, "don't quote me" interviews reveal a widespread conviction that women are detail-happy perfectionists who find an outlet for their frustrations in busy-work. Their craven cowardice is so great that men, single-handed, have had to wage a mighty battle to bring salary schedules up to the point where they all can earn a modest living.—Minnesota Journal of Education.

# How Much Self-Direction

### for Our Students?

By ALBERT M. LERCH

"I wish you had made me take the college preparatory course," sighed a former student as he looked at me across the desk. "I thought I knew best, but I can see now how wrong I was," he ended.

How many times has this scene been reenacted in schools all over the country? It's a familiar scene-former students returning and confessing how they wish they had it to do all over again; how they regret having taken the easy way, carried the lightest academic load, taken the snap courses which required the least effort. By contrast are those students who come back to offer their thanks and appreciation for what they got from the school, who recall with appreciation the subject teacher who insisted on a great deal of concentration and hard work. They confess that what they had considered the useless subjects benefited them greatly and wish they had gotten more when they had the opportunity. Yes, they confess, the school should be tougher.

Year after year it is my pleasure to welcome former students back to my office. Some are in the service, others have been discharged, some are in colleges, others are engaged in their chosen professions. Invariably I pose this question: "What can the school do for those students who are now presently sitting in the places where you once sat?"

Their answers can be summed up in the following terse statements: "Make them work while in school." "Compel those who have the ability, to work up to its fullest." "Require those who have high ability to take as many courses as possible in the sciences and higher mathematics." "Don't allow any student who has the ability to

do good academic work to take the so-called snap courses so he can loaf his way through school." "Make the students who want to loaf their way through school either work or get out and get a job." "You should furnish more technical or vocational training for those who are skilled with their hands." "Schools should begin early to give students vocational information because most students don't know what it's all about outside of school." "Most high-school students don't know what's best for them; they should be guided and told." "Teachers are trained. They are older. They have experience on their side. They have been through the ropes and know from experience what is likely to be best for those whom they are teaching."

One of the common confessions of college students is that when they were in high school they worked up to only between 30 to 40 per cent of their capacity. By the time they finish college, they step it up, out of necessity, to perhaps as high as 80 or 90 per cent, depending on the field for which they are preparing. My own students experience quite a shock when they compare their high-

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

An alternate title for this article might have been "Are We Challenging Our Secondary-School Students Enough?" It is a loaded question because the author says that students who have the ability to do good work should not be allowed to take snap courses. He is director of guidance for the Northampton Area Joint High School, Northampton, Pa.

school grades with their much lower college freshman grades. This surprising jolt is the incentive that spurs them to greater effort, which results in a decided improvement in grades in the years remaining.

The world is moving into a highly technical era which will demand individuals better trained in technical skills. Yet, according to recent reports, we find today's high-school students are avoiding the subjects they need if they want to get into one of the technical fields. The past year only 1.4 per cent of our high-school students took solid geometry, only 1.6 per cent took trigonometry, and 0.5 per cent took college algebra. Less than 20 per cent of high-school youths take math beyond arithmetic, fewer than 7.6 per cent take chemistry, and only 4.3 per cent take physics.

My intention is not to defend or controvert the statements I have made so far. Rather, I should like to raise a few pertinent questions that have arisen in my mind and probably in the minds of other guidance directors.

The first question I would pose is this: Are the schools getting the most work possible out of the students? In other words, are the schools extending the students to work up to their capacity? This question is asked in view of the fact that many college freshmen admit they did not work nearly up to their capacity while in high school. If this be true, then what measures can the school take to arouse greater effort?

Another factor must be considered here. In every school are students who, knowing they lack funds necessary for college, will not extend themselves. Some will enroll in a curriculum which will prepare them for another type of work but which will not test their real abilities. This wasted brain power is sorely needed today by our country. Fortunately, some steps have been taken to remedy this condition. Many colleges are expanding their scholarship programs. Industry and business are contributing huge funds for scholarship assistance. Many high

schools are thinking in terms of adding an additional two years (junior college) to their regular program. Because of the latter plan, many students will be given an opportunity to secure some college training. Despite the steps being taken, more hard thinking is needed on how to salvage the wasted brain power.

Should the school require those who have the ability, to carry more courses in the sciences and higher mathematics? This question will no doubt raise the problem of electives: should the student be allowed freedom of choice or should the courses be assigned to him without his having much choice? Other factors that must be considered here are whether the teachers are encouraging the students to take certain courses; whether the guidance department is rendering effective testing and counseling services to discover the students who are capable of handling courses in the sciences and in higher mathematics; whether the parents are aware of the abilities of their children; and whether the students are aware of the needs of society plus their own abilities?

Are certain courses in our schools labeled as "snap" courses or "loafer" courses? Usually, this would mean the general course or general education course, whichever applies. Do we label the students enrolled in them as not being able to do much? Do we by our actions and attitudes make them feel we don't expect much and thus don't insist upon much? Perhaps we claim that these students show little interest and have a "don't care" attitude; so why be too concerned. Still many of these same students may work late into the night at home on a hobby. Perhaps the answer is for us to concentrate a little more on motivation in the classroom for these students. To illustrate: A student may dislike English one year but the following year he will find it most enjoyable and interesting. Could it be motivation? Is it because the classroom atmosphere is different?

Are high-school students capable of knowing what's best for them, or should the school exert more responsibility in telling them what's best for them? Here the factors to be considered are the teacher's experience and training as compared to a student barely in his teens, who has little experience in life. The needs of society, which many students do not comprehend, must also be considered. Many schools thrust a great deal of responsibility on students in expecting them to act, plan, and think as mature adults. Is it fair to expect this of an adolescent who is experiencing confusion and adjustment problems associated with this period of life? Isn't it the responsibility of the school to set the pattern for students?

Are the schools emphasizing preparation for the academically inclined and neglecting those not so inclined? Schools must consider what they are doing for the average student who will not go to college but may enter some trade or similar occupation. Should the schools revise their course offerings in general and extend their technical training program? Perhaps they must review their course offerings for the so-called general student in light of a changing world.

There is a tendency for some book companies to try to interest a school to buy their publications because their particular books "promise less work for the teacher," or because the "material is simpler and easier to comprehend." Is this what we want for our students? Isn't it possible that we may be now teaching subject matter that is not sufficiently difficult or challenging? Isn't it possible, for example, that some of the subjects being taught in the tenth grade could be taught in the ninth grade? Perhaps courses should be shifted throughout the elementary and secondary schools because students are able to handle them in an earlier grade. Perhaps some courses can be eliminated entirely and others added, in line with our exposure to television, radio, and other scientific discoveries. Carefully observe a fourth grader talking about atomic energy or jet planes or radar. It could be that he is ready for more instruction or information along these lines at this period of his life. Does our course of study in the fourth grade provide some of this information or is it put off until a higher grade? The chances are if the school doesn't give it to him when he is eager and ready for it, he will get it outside of the school. It could be then that he might find school dull and uninteresting because it is not giving him the things in which he is interested or about which he is now ready to absorb information. I firmly believe that the general intelligence level of the school children of our nation has been raised. If this belief is justified, then it is only natural that the schools should raise their requirements.

Let me conclude with an illustration: A man went to a dealer of horses. He purchased a pair of what the dealer described as good spirited horses. After driving the horses for several weeks, the man brought them back. He complained that the horses showed no spirit at all, that he got very little out of them. The horse dealer asked the man to let him handle the horses for a few days. Several days later the man returned. The dealer informed the man that nothing was wrong with the horses. Under his handling they performed magnificently.

"Why wouldn't they do that for me?" inquired the man who had purchased them.

"That's simple to explain," replied the horse dealer. "You drove them the way they wanted to be driven. I drove them the way they should be driven."

Could this story apply to the school and students today? Should we allow the students to show the school the way they want to go or should the school show the students the way? Should the school exact more effort and accomplishments from the students, or should it be satisfied that it's getting the most out of the students? Is the school satisfied with what it is teaching or must changes be made? These questions each school must answer for itself.

# Teachers' Salaries and the Free-Enterprise System

By FRANK E. WOLF

THERE IS A GROWING TENDENCY among educational administrators to favor open bargaining rather than the customary salary schedule in determining teachers' salaries. There are individuals in the profession who claim that salary schedules are socialistic devices which are not in keeping with the American system of free enterprise. As a member of a consolidated school district serving on the teachers' association salary committee, I had frequent discussions with such individuals. To determine an exact definition of "free enterprise" as used by these people has been impossible; however, the following meanings, as applied to the teaching profession, have been inferred from their use of the term.

One teacher may be worth more than another, they point out, and therefore should be free to bargain for a higher salary. Obviously, the administrator should be free to bargain with a teacher to accept a lower salary than the teacher would ordinarily receive on a salary schedule. A schedule with automatic increments tends to maintain the security and low standards of the undesirables in the profession.

Salary schedules, tenure, and automatic increments are socialistic devices, according to other members of the profession. The following statement was recently made at a teachers' association meeting: "The same salary schedule for all teachers is like what [sic] the Russians have nationwide. This is a free country; let's have free enterprise." Briefly summarized, it would appear that the segment of the profession which is in favor of these proposals is against the teacher security provided by schedules and in favor of open-market bargaining between

each teacher and his employer in deciding

In order to determine the merits of these arguments, let us compare the teacher to a salaried worker and to other professionals, such as the doctor, lawyer, and accountant. If salary schedules, tenure, and automatic increments are abolished, how would the advocates of the so-called freeenterprise system react in the following circumstances?

A parent may call a teacher in the evening to discuss his child. At the end of a half-hour discussion, may the teacher bill the parent as a worker would at so much an hour, or as a doctor would for giving advice over the telephone? Will it be acceptable to tutor one's own students who need the help and charge so much an hour? A teacher is asked to chaperone a dance or basketball game in the evening or on the week end. Will the administrators pay the teacher at the hourly rate on a time-and-a-half and double-time basis?

At the end of the year when contracts are to be renewed, will the administrators cry

#### **EDITOR'S NOTE**

Large and middle-sized cities tend to have salary schedules or salary guides, but in a smaller place there may be a formally established policy on minimum salary but no guide or schedule for salary steps and maximums. In such a situation, the point of view of the author of this article is apropos. He is now an associate professor at Plymouth Teachers College in New Hampshire.

"unethical!" at the teacher who bargains one school against another in trying to acquire the highest salary from among those desiring his services? Will the cry "unethical!" be heard if a teacher indicates his intention to accept a position but changes to another opening at a higher salary? Among the adherents of a free-enterprise system, the right of the administration to hire a new teacher at a lower salary and release an older teacher (even though his services are satisfactory) is assumed. Will it be considered unethical to request a salary increase as a condition to re-signing one's contract?

If the profession is to have a free-enterprise system, it should be really free. The teacher should be free to strike for higher wages. Raises should compare favorably with industrial raises, which usually exceed the two to three dollar average of teacher increments on a weekly basis. School systems should provide fringe benefits, such as paid or partially paid insurance and rest breaks heretofore enjoyed by salaried workers other than teachers. Teachers should be free to charge learned journals for articles accepted for publication. They should be free to bill the school for overtime pay for correcting papers and making lesson plans at home on week nights and week ends. They should be free to take advantage of the so-called law of supply and demand and command higher salaries in subject fields critically short of staff.

Industry, which presumably operates under the conditions described by the free-

enterprise advocates, pays starting college graduates higher salaries than those received by teachers, according to Benjamin Fine, educational editor of the New York Times. In a free-enterprise system, will local boards of education be willing to start teachers at higher salaries, which will equal those offered by industry? Will the boards of education pay teachers while they are pursuing their master's degrees as some industrial companies do? In many school systems, a teacher is paid for two hundred working days a year, excluding holidays in December, February, and April. Will boards of education meet teachers' demands for pay for these forced vacations, as well as for two summer months? Will boards of education pay teachers on a sliding scale geared to monthly increases in the cost of living, as is the practice now in many industrial organizations?

The decision to abolish salary schedules, tenure, and automatic increments in favor of a free-enterprise (bargaining) system will rest ultimately with the local boards of education. If these boards decide to have an illdefined or nonexistent system for employment, it is hoped that they will be consistent in their attitudes toward the practices teachers may well follow as outlined here. If the local boards retain the structured salary procedure followed by most school systems, it is hoped that they will consider the living conditions leading to the practices previously described when creating new realistic schedules which will attract and hold desirable teachers.

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The Teacher-Defined by a Psychiatrist. What are teachers? Don't think I'm going to say they're egomaniacs or schizophrenics or even slight neurotics, because they're not. Teachers are the most intelligent people in the world. Their I.Q.'s are invariably seventy points higher than our most brilliant chimpanzees. How do I know? I've seen a lot of them. At the end of June they come flocking to me in droves. Nothing more serious than nervous exhaustion, mind you. But it's funny how it's always the end of June.—New York State Education.

# Rehabilitating the Handicapped

By E. C. HALL and NORMA GRIFFIN

BECAUSE OF ACCIDENT, disease, or congenital disorders nearly 200,000 handicapped American citizens need to be rehabilitated each year. There is, at present, a backlog of at least 1,500,000 men and women in the United States who need assistance in meeting problems of vocational rehabilitation.

To deny these individuals the right to be useful and self-supporting is un-American; it is inconsistent with our accepted objectives of education. We might as well deny them freedom of speech or freedom of worship as to deny them the opportunity of optimum success in a chosen vocation.

Prejudice has long restricted the opportunities afforded the handicapped. They have been forced to accept menial jobs through every period of history. We cannot afford to reject a single one of these persons as hopeless or unworthy. Adequate training should be provided for all handicapped individuals so that they can be placed in jobs where demands are consistent with their abilities. Likewise, there must be a program of education for employers, which will lead them to accept and employ the physically handicapped. This is one of the most important issues faced by Americans today.

Progress has been made in recent years in the services offered the handicapped; however, this is not sufficient. Every citizen must recognize his responsibilities and privileges to accept, develop, and train this segment of our population. The objectives of education were never developed with the idea that they would apply to the normal child only. A spirit of hopelessness regarding the physically handicapped, so frequently expressed, will aid neither the individual nor our society. We cannot af-

ford to label the physically handicapped as objects of philanthropy. We must see them as playing a constructive role in our economy, remembering that human personality is everywhere sacred regardless of the type of body in which it is encased.

Programs of vocational rehabilitation as provided by the several states and the Federal government are designed to restore the confidence and develop the ability of our handicapped people so that they may be gainfully employed. This is not charity. Rather, it is a justifiable and a legal responsibility.

Among the many agencies which can be of great value in these programs of rehabilitation are the public schools. They can provide special classes for the handicapped. They can also help such students get in touch with the services they need.

The following principles, carefully considered and objectively applied, will result in the greatest possible rehabilitation of the physically handicapped.

The degree and type of handicap must be considered in the selection of a vocation.

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

Vocational rehabilitation is a necessity in our world. We cannot afford to relieve the physically handicapped of the necessity for earning a part or all of their living. Our attitudes toward them must depend on our own psychological reaction to individuals whom we recognize as handicapped. But the topic requires study so that handicapped people may find a constructive role to play in our system. Professor Hall is chairman of the division of education, Central State College, Edmond, Okla. Mrs. Griffin, coauthor of the article, is a high-school teacher in Luther, Okla.

Each physically handicapped person presents an individual problem in vocational adjustment. His physical capabilities should be considered in relation to the requirements of the chosen vocation; otherwise, effective rehabilitation is impossible and may result in disappointment and much wasted effort. The function of the rehabilitation center is to help the individual face his capabilities in the light of his limitations.

The degree to which skills can be developed in the individual must be consistent with the skills demanded in the chosen vocation. The use of testing procedures to discover aptitudes and special abilities, whether mechanical, clerical, manual, artistic, musical, or special motor skills, is helpful. However, if psychological tests are used, their purpose should be to ascertain whether the individual has the intellectual ability and special aptitude to do a specific job; they should not be used for general screening purposes. To fail to consider the potential of the individual in relation to the demands of the job is to bid for his failure and the failure of the entire program.

The interests of the individual must be considered in the selection of a vocation. Interest is just as vital to the handicapped as it is to any other person in choosing a vocation. Unless he is interested in the vocation for which he prepares, his progress and accomplishments will in all probability be very small. More satisfactory work can be done in something where interest abounds than in something that holds no interest or challenge. This assumption is just as true for the handicapped, as it is for the normal.

The demand for employees in the vocation must be such as will insure employment after the rehabilitation program is finished. Employment possibilities must be considered from two points of view: the economic demand and the prejudice against the handicapped in the particular field or business. There is a wide variance concerning the last issue; however, progress is being made in creating better attitudes toward the employability of the handicapped in the business world. It is the duty of those connected with rehabilitation programs to keep informed regarding the fields which offer the greatest possibility of employment. They must be familiar with business trends and cycles so that the individual may be informed, before starting his training, what he can expect in the way of employment from his chosen vocation.

The remuneration in the chosen vocation should be sufficient to meet the economic needs of the handicapped. For the handicapped to be rehabilitated effectively he must be trained for a vocation which can furnish at least reasonable fulfillment of his economic needs. Otherwise, the strain and stress added to his original handicap will create further problems and may result in decrease of interest, dissatisfaction, and ultimate failure in his vocation.

The cost of training and the length of the training period must be considered in the choosing of a vocation. Cost and duration of a training period are often of great importance to the individual. It may be that the handicapped has limited funds with which to pursue vocational training. Even though he may expect certain financial assistance through the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, good business judgment would indicate that his financial status be given consideration in making a selection of a vocation. The length of training should be consistent with the individual's desire, needs, and responsibilities.

The capital outlay necessary to establish the individual in the vocation after his training must be considered. Training in the program of vocational rehabilitation often requires certain tools, equipment, or capital outlay for the establishment of a small business. This cost must be studied carefully in the light of the funds available and the demand for a particular business.

Otherwise, there may be bitter disappointment and loss of money if the person is unable to apply himself to the vocation for which he has prepared.

The vocation selected must promote a high degree of social and emotional stability in the individual. An individual's vocational scheme of life cannot be separated from his personality pattern. His aims, ambitions, drives, and strivings must be considered as an integral part of any effective rehabilitation program. We must remember that the handicapped is not different from the normal in responding to elements which will promote his social and emotional stability. This is especially true of those receiving their handicap after some time has been spent in a given vocation.

The amount and type of previous training must be considered in the selection of a vocation for the handicapped. In the process of vocational rehabilitation, all previous training must be taken into consideration. If this training is of such a nature as to be useful, it might expediently be enlarged upon, provided the nature of the handicap will permit the use of these previously acquired skills. The earlier training may also serve as an important indication of aptitudes and abilities which might be followed in another field if the original vocation must be discontinued for one reason or another.

The age of the individual at the time of the handicap should be given consideration. The age at which the handicap appears may have great bearing on the acceptance of the handicap by the individual. The acceptance of the handicap may come more readily when it has been present throughout the life span of the individual. If the handicap has appeared in later life, the individual's adjustment to a changed way of life may be more difficult. In either situation this factor must be considered in any program of rehabilitation. If the handicap

is congenital in character, it may have kept the individual from various experiences which would influence his program of rehabilitation.

The adjustment the individual has made to his handicap is important in working out his vocational rehabilitation program. Some individuals are overwhelmed by their disability. Some accept it more objectively. It would seem reasonable to expect that those who have made satisfactory adjustment to their handicap would do a more effective job in their program of rehabilitation.

The degree of adjustment may be revealed by a person's friendliness, or the lack of it; his eagerness and co-operativeness or his antisocial or aggressive tendencies; his attitudes toward society, his home, his family; and his attitude in the solving of his vocational problem. The counselor can come to know these attitudes only by really "studying" the individual.

The vocational rehabilitation process must be one which concentrates on the individual as a whole, not just on the handicap. The handicap must be considered as an integral part of the individual. The implications of the disability may be far more crippling to his total functioning as a person than the physical disability itself. The individual's sense of personal worth, his conception of his relations to other people, his hopes and fears, his feelings of disgust, guilt, shame, wounded pride, are just as important in the rehabilitative process or in the actual training for a vocation.

Every diagnostic and therapeutic approach which lends promise to aid in the solution of problems relating to the vocational rehabilitation of the physically handicapped must be employed. The life, happiness, and welfare of these individuals are intimately related to the life, happiness, and welfare of many individuals and to our entire society.



# Iricks of the Irade



Edited by TED GORDON

MEET STINKY: For years I have taught a class in Vergil's Aeneid, even teaching the principal! My greatest problem was to get pupils to watch for and listen to the ending of words in Latin. It was a tough job until I hit upon stinky. Stinky is a porcelain skunk of the type women like to use as an accessory.

A poem about him was given to every member of the class. I started. If a student muffed the ending, I gave him the stinky. He could get rid of it only if he spotted some other member of the group who failed to watch the rear end of a word. Even yet, alumni write back "... one of the stinkies!" It did make them watch endings. Try it. The poem:

> For your success, this little beast May be a useful token. Just stop and see which end is east Before a word is spoken. Remember it's the end that counts And not the cute beginning. If you guess wrong, you'll rue the day, The "kit" will have its inning. 'Tis little use to him to send Excuses high fallutin'; If you ignore the business end, He'll get you, sure as shootin'.

Obviously, this idea of a stinky is not restricted to Latin teaching but can be used for motivation in many types of group recitation situations.-Charles A. Tonsor, Brooklyn, N.Y.

CLOTHESPINS: A contest in clothespins! What school uses can readers send in? Here are some starters: personalized markers for papers, projects, tools, and so on; towel holders, recipe holder. Now you go

SMART ART: I use a technique that I call a "scratch-o-graph," which is positively the most inexpensive and available of all the audio-visual aids. You merely admit to the students that you can't draw. Then using any kind of crude representation on the blackboard, you tell them what idea you intended to convey and ask them to invest the markings you have made with form, color, shape, or size to fit the illustration, using their own imagination. Sometimes talented students bring me their artistic reproductions of the idea which I have illustrated so crudely.-E. C. OAKES in "Postcard Conference" of Michigan State Department of Education.

BRUSHING UP: To make a quick count of brushes, pencils, pens, some tools, and so on, drill holes of proper size and number in a large block of wood. Give each item a number and a hole, and give each student that number. Check the returns with a quick glance.- JEAN TUTTLE, Virgil Junior High School, Los Angeles.

CLASS CONSCIOUSNESS: Use specific words in writing. I like to have students put this advice into practice by brightening up "He came into class" and "He left class" with vivid variations, such as "He slipped into class, tiptoed, pussyfooted." And for leaving: "He raced, fled, darted, rushed, stormed." Students invent speed words for the departure!-ROBERT L. COARD, State Teachers College, Minot, N.D.

For several hundred of these ideas in collected form, send 50 cents in coin (or \$1.00 for a copy for you and one for a friend) to California Education Press, 612 South Figueroa St., Los Angeles 17, Calif. The eighty-page il-lustrated booklet is entitled, "Treasury of Teaching Techniques."

# Teaching in a Depressed Area

# Most Important Quality for the Teacher of Disadvantaged Children Is Compassion

By FREDERICK H. LEWIS

What it means to be a teacher in a rural area, or in a large city, or in a suburban community will, in many ways, prove to be much the same. But there will also be some important differences. The teacher in the substandard sections of a metropolis, for example, is often the most promising influence in the entire environment of the youngsters. To assess the qualities needed for teaching in a depressed metropolitan area, such as New York City, the students must be understood by an examination of what produced them.

First of the influences on them is the home. In the lowest income home in a large city, there is meager intellectual stimulation from parents who have a minimum of education themselves and who make little effort to provide for their children any cultural opportunities, even those that are free. In this atmosphere, low aspiration of parents is the general rule. If the children's goals are to be higher than the parents', the incentive must come from elsewhere. Adults in such a home have little sense of civic responsibility, a lack not confined in a metropolis to the lowest income groups, Almost every city dweller is far removed from the seats of government and the people who sit in those seats. The New York City department of sanitation alone has more employees than the entire population of Cooperstown, N.Y., or Potsdam, N.Y. At the density on East 100th Street between First and Second avenues, all the inhabitants of the United States could be housed in one-half the area of New York City.

Most every city teacher deals with numerous children whose varied cultural backgrounds differ markedly from those of the average American family, but in New York the Puerto Ricans, unlike newcomers from other lands, resist Americanization and even learning the English language. It may surprise you that in the public schools in New York City there are classes conducted entirely in Spanish. As trustees of the future, the teachers of these students have a special assignment.

Second of the influences is the neighborhood—the street, the playground. There is constant competition for every facility, every opportunity for recreation, for advancement, for there is never enough to go around. The result? A kind of competitive tension essentially different in spirit from the concept of fair competition in American life generally.

In such an environment of competition, acceptable moral standards are changed around. What's mine is mine; what's yours is mine too if I can get my hands on it.

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

There are differences in management and in teaching between large and small schools, but perhaps the greatest difference does not concern size. It concerns economic environment. If you have never taught in a depressed economic environment, you have escaped some frustrations as well as some exhilarating experiences. This article was prepared for a panel discussion, "What It Means to Be a Teacher."

The author is executive director of the New York Herald Tribune Fresh

Air Fund.

There is a different attitude toward "the law," ranging from indifference, to distrust, to fear, to evasion, to defiance. The attitude manifests itself toward all who represent authority, including the teacher. Always there is the struggle of the minority for its place in the sun-the Negro, the Puerto Rican, the Italian, the Irish. Where facilities are limited, moral integrity below par, and the law lightly regarded, all the ingredients of racial tension are present.

When these children enter the classroom. with all the conditioning of home and neighborhood within them, the teacher has two broad alternatives: (1) to remain as aloof as possible from the personal lives of the students, rely on ingenuity at presenting subject matter to hold attention, utilize the standard disciplinary measures when necessary; (2) to identify himself with the children, seek to understand their natures, their problems, and the sources of those problems and take it from there.

Both approaches are being used in New York City, and almost everywhere else too, and they are not hard to distinguish. Actually, academic progress occurs under both ways of working with children. But "trusteeship" is a broad responsibility and in today's world we have defined the job of the teacher in broad terms. It is too bad we don't pay him on the same terms! In areas like East Harlem and Bedford-Stuyvesant, he is literally the custodian of the future, and yet he has to take outside jobs to make ends meet, jobs that may be completely unrelated to his role as a trustee.

What are the special qualities a teacher needs in order to work effectively with the children we have been talking about? We take it for granted that whether one teaches in the Bronx or in Bronxville, in South Africa or in the court of the King of Siam, grasp of subject matter is indispensable. It is equally obvious that teaching effectiveness will everywhere vary with the imagination and resourcefulness of the teacher, with his emotional maturity, with his knowledge of the learning process, and with his dedication to the task.

I venture to say that the single, most important quality for the teacher of disadvantaged children is compassion. It is a quality that cannot be bought at any price and I am not sure it can even be trained. I use the term in its most general sense, without condescension, without pity, without sentimentality. It is sympathy in the sense that the psychologists employ the term "empathy." It is a selflessness that is intellectual as well as emotional.

From compassion springs a true understanding of children, as individuals and as members of groups. From it spring enthusiasm for the task and the extra energy needed to do it well. From it spring alertness and sensitiveness to potential problems, patience and the knack of articulating the needs of a child. From compassion springs that flexibility enabling a teacher to function successfully with children whose standards are much different, always striving toward higher standards, not by imposing them but by inducing them. It is compassion which enforces that basic honesty so important in dealing with all children, but especially with those whose environment is not given to subtlety. Tenement existence in a big city does not dwell on the finer points of life. Finally it is compassion which provides the courage and the drive to keep at a job that has more than its rightful share of frustration and disappointment.

Teaching is hard work in most any setting. With a sense of mission, it is also satisfying work in most any setting. It is especially satisfying to those men and women who are spending their lives amidst the poverty and discouragement of a depressed area, not as timeservers but in giving hope and leadership, opening vistas that may lead their students to a better way of life, conscious that there is no tragedy for some of our people that is not tragic for all of our people.

# The Considerable Tail

or

# What Every Coach Knows

By E. A. HULL (CLINTON, ILL.)

A FELLOW NAMED BARRIE left men without a leg to stand on when he wrote that play called, What Every Woman Knows. (See your public library, 800's.) Betrayed once, men sometimes think it is no use to defend themselves in other instances. Take the case of a hard-working coach.

"You're an hour late and supper's all cold!" his wife accuses. You, of course, know it, for your stomach has rolled and growled with hunger since six o'clock. But you don't say a word. What's the use?

Then take the time when you felt pretty sure that your team would win the tournament, if they could just get sufficient workout. . . .

Picking at a soggy, cold supper, you felt pretty sure no one loved you, but if your team should win . . . it would be worth it. And then the phone rang.

"Hello. Coach? This is Guy Holt. Say what do you think you're doing? Bob was an hour later than usual getting home from practice. His mother is plenty sore. Say, what do you think you are. The way you run that athletic business at school it's like the tail wagging the dog. . . . I like sports. . . ."

"Oh, well," you tell yourself a half hour later when he has hung up, "I wasn't very hungry anyway."

Men, don't take that stuff lying down. You don't have to. You've got a defense. Speaking about the tail wagging the dog, have you ever considered what that tail does for that dog?

1. A tail, whether bobbed, pointed, curled, or just plumy, expresses the very mood and soul of the whole dog. He uses it as an outlet for emotions he cannot or dare not put into actions or words. It is the dog's flag; it is his go-between with his public.

2. A tail, put to use, is an appendage of balance. It can hold a dog upright when the going gets slippery.

3. A tail is a weapon that helps keep annoying parasites and other pests in their places, since such nuisances can rarely stand up against its vigor.

4. A tail, full of burs, gives a dog something worth while to work on during leisure hours and bad weather. It is an important part of his cleansing operations.

5. A tail, up, invites comers. A tail, down, says plainly, "Beware, no co-operation here!" or "I'm sick and the spirit isn't willing."

6. A tail is one of the judging points of fine dogs. A good one gives the dog class; a bad one, nonentity. None at all puts the dog out of running. Every judge of good dogs knows how to use a tail to set the dog at his best advantage.

A tail is something to hold on to when the rest of the dog seems to be getting away or out of control.

8. A tail protects vital parts from vandal damage and when properly used discourages vampires.

 A tail is likewise a cushion for hard knocks. 10. And a tail can take lots of teasing and abuse, but if it is attacked, mishandled, or restricted, the whole dog will bristle up and show fight. His yelp might even call out top authority. Now if the athletic program is to the school what the tail is to the dog, if sports are to the boy what the tail is to the dog—Man, you've got something. And it is your defense.

### A Promising Approach to a Pressing Problem

By MARY JANE DUNWIDDIE (Neenah, Wis.)

Professional educators often seem to be too busy attending committee meetings, correcting papers, and figuring ways to balance the school budget to be able to step back and take a fresh view of the critical teacher shortage. As the wife of a teacher, I feel I have a little better perspective; and I feel that people have been going about teacher recruitment all wrong. Even the armed forces have given up the old "Your Country Needs You!" line. Now they proclaim, "Stand Out-Join the U. S. Marines." There isn't much point, it seems to me, in trying to convince young people that they ought to embark on a teaching career because of the wonderful service they can render. Instead, we ought to make teaching as attractive as possible. It must be glamorized!

Teachers must always appear handsome, healthy, and beautifully dressed (but in good taste, of course). No matter how late they have sat up grading papers, they must invariably appear bright-eyed and radiant next morning. No problem must ever cause them to appear exasperated. Whatever their load of school and community activities, they must always have plenty of time for a casual chat or their favorite hobby.

Single men must select beautiful and charming brides. Those already married, like my husband, will have to do the best they can with what they have. Women teachers who marry must likewise choose only the most attractive mates; and those

who do not marry must make it subtly obvious that they remain single simply in order to devote themselves to their profession.

The families of married teachers must be the envy of the neighborhood. Their homes should be modern, attractive, ample in size, and convenient to whatever people most want to be convenient to. The family car or cars should be of recent model, brightly polished at all times. The teacher's children should be handsome, healthy, popular, and without noticeable personality defects. They should dress as other children do but a shade better. Blue jeans are fine for playbut, please, no patches. If everyone else in the neighborhood gets a two-wheeler at the age of six, the teacher's children should have theirs at age five and three-quarters.

In this way, it will become obvious, even to the youngest child at the most impressionable age, that to be a teacher or a member of a teacher's family is the best thing that could happen to him. In this way we shall certainly induce young people to flock to the teachers' colleges in such numbers that the problem will change from one of recruitment to one of selection.

This method will, of course, present certain difficulties. If you have any ideas on how to put it into effect, please write, in detail. I haven't time to work it all out, because I have to mend some socks, turn a couple of shirt collars, cut the children's hair, and press my husband's suit.

# Teachers should be allowed to participate in POLICY MAKING

By F. L. SWEET

AT THE PRESENT TIME, when the struggle of democracy against totalitarianism has become a burning issue the world over, there is a great effort on the part of democratic nations to emphasize the democratic processes in every phase of their societies and cultures. If one of our educational responsibilities is to pass on the social and cultural heritage, then it is logical to expect that the school systems should make every attempt to emphasize the democratic processes, especially in the earlier years of a student's education. It is during these early periods that the democratic viewpoint can be instilled and the democratic practices put into effect.

The child is basically democratic in his early school responses. Prejudices, antagonisms, and smugness develop in him in later years after he has been exposed to the influences of other adults. One of our duties in achieving education for good citizenship should be to prevent the development of these types of negative attitude and behavior. We should encourage co-operation, tolerance, mutual understanding, and so on.

These attitudes can easily be developed in the child of early school years if there is a day-to-day example for him to follow. Who sets this example? The teacher leads the way in her relationships with students and members of the staff.

The student can and will sense the degree to which the democratic processes are operating within the class and school. If the teacher is a product of democratic participation in the making of policies, she will have more interest in those policies and hence will carry them out in a democratic

manner. This manner is what the child will soon imitate.

As a matter of good community and staff relations, an administrator will often benefit from enlisting the co-operation of the staff in policy making. As a rule, the superior teacher is better qualified than the administrator to advise in matters of curriculum, text selection, materials, and methods. The poor teacher will also benefit from the use of co-operative planning because it will foster a feeling of belongingness and responsibility that may lead to new stimulation and effort on the part of that poorer teacher.

In some circumstances it may prove necessary for the administrator to direct proceedings and perhaps make decisions himself, but these actions should be carried out in a diplomatic manner to foster the feeling that the teacher is still a definite part of the process. The idea that two heads are better than one is a good thought to keep in mind during the formulation of policies. If the staff can grow professionally and improve the existing system, then their posi-

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

The author of this article agrees with Harold Spears, who says in Some Principles of Teaching that the primary purpose of education is to teach effective citizenship in a democratic system. Naturally, the question "howl" arises, which brings us to the point of this article. The author, who lives in Boulder, Colo., feels that we do a lot of talking about democracy and very little in the way of practical suggestions.

tion as part of co-operative policy making is justified.

Ideally, all teachers should have roles in policy making, but realistically it remains the job of the superior teacher and the leaders; that is, for efficient operation it is necessary to use some selection of those who participate in policy making. Those who are not chosen must have some part, direct or indirect; otherwise efficiency may take the place of unity.

It is important to keep in mind the fundamental purpose of the school system, which is to educate children toward effective citizenship in a democratic society. Experience is not the best teacher; it is the only teacher. To experience must be added independent thinking, co-operative endeavor, and understanding of the goals and objectives of all concerned in the educational process. All school systems, no matter how large or small, provide great opportunity for participation in democratic processes. This experience will carry over into community life. Beyond the staff and administration is the board of education, the real makers of policy; but behind them is the public, the final judges and evaluators of educational policy.

Schools need a more effective public relations program, that is agreed, but we fail to take the first step in this program by neglecting adequate instruction in democratic processes. The children we neglect now are the problem parents of the school system of ten years from now. What is the old saying, "It isn't the kids, it's the parents"? We have brought the situation upon ourselves, but there is a solution: extended use of democratic processes in the school, and this includes teacher participation in policy making.

### Why Does a Youth Become Delinquent?

Why does a youth become delinquent? A delinquent youth is one who is angry. He is angry with society in general and with many specific facets of it, and he expresses this anger in many ways. Why does he feel angry? He feels angry because he feels that society has not treated him properly. His delinquent behavior seems to be motivated by a spirit of vengeance, an "I'll get even," and "I'll show them" attitude. Isolated, lonely, a youth who is angry and anti-social soon finds others who share similar feelings. The strong forces of group security and group approval conspire to band youth so inclined together into a tightly knit fraternity which gives support to their anti-social behavior. A gang code is developed that in itself becomes a powerful and self-perpetuating force for delinquency, not an easy one to break. . .

The reasons why a youth becomes angry at society seem to spring from several sources. Though

the exact constellation for each is unique, the general pattern can be traced: lack of success; no strong and accepting adult to whom he can turn in time of trouble for advice, counsel, and acceptance; a lack of genuine satisfaction which comes from engaging in activities and achieving in tasks that are considered worthwhile both by the individual himself, and by society; lack of participation in enterprises that are larger than the individual himself, and that involve a contribution on his part to the welfare of the group. These are all elements that enter to cause an individual to become angry at society and to try to "get even." Once he transgresses, it becomes easier to transgress again, but each time the less accepting of him society becomes, the less both he and society can forgive and forget, and the more and more difficult becomes rehabilitation .- An editorial in the California Journal of Secondary Education.

# Events & Opinion



#### Edited by THE STAFF

A COMMUNICATION FROM ONE OF OUR CONTRIBUTORS: In the September issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE, Charles A. Tonsor, who recently retired as principal of the Grover Cleveland High School in Brooklyn, N.Y., wrote an intriguing article, "Blackboard Protest." It was based on a talk which he had presented before the school assembly and was concerned with an answer to the controversial book, Blackboard Jungle. We recently received a letter from Dr. Tonsor and feel that our readers may find it of interest.

Some of my colleagues in the profession have been loath to believe that I made the talk on 'Blackboard Protest' before the school assembly," he writes. "I always made a five-minute talk on some vital topic to students immediately following the reading of the Bible and before the regular program. That these talks bore fruit is attested by many letters-none solicited. Following is one. It may spur other principals to follow the practice of giving assembly talks.

" DEAR SIR:

"You do not know me, although I was graduated from your school in June of 1954. I am at present an engineering ordet at the Merchant Marine Academy, and I feel that you are the reason I am there. For three years I cut corners in high school, not knowing and not caring about my future, but after listening to you talk at one of the regular Wednesday assemblies I then knew my goal in life. It was a hard road making up three wasted school years, but with the help of God I managed to get this far, and on the day that I am graduated from Kings Point, a part of you will be there with me. " Yours truly,

'C/M JAMES M. MACKIN' "

WORKSHOP ON FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION: Mounting professional interest in procedures for developing greater competence in family living has led to the scheduling of another summer workshop by the Family Study Center of the University of Chicago. By bringing teachers in schools and colleges together with personnel from family agencies which engage in community programs, it will enrich both theory and practice through exchange of experience. It will be particularly useful for practitioners who conduct programs of preparation for marriage and parenthood. Teachers, social workers, counselors, parent educators, and group workers in the field of the family are eligible to attend this

workshop, which is scheduled to meet from July 9 to July 27.

Further information may be procured from Mrs. Winifred O'Donnell, Secretary, Family Study Center, University of Chicago, 5757 Drexel Ave., Chicago 37, Ill.

RACE RELATIONS LAW REPORTER: This is the title of a new publication by Vanderbilt University in Nashville, Tenn., which will concern itself with developments related to social segregation decisions. The new professional magazine will publish decisions of courts, provisions of state constitutions, acts of state legislatures, ordinances of municipalities, opinions of attorneys general, regulations of state departments of education, and rulings of local boards of education. A large part of the material presented will deal with segregation in the public school systems. This legal reporting service also will report on similar matters in connection with transportation, recreation, and other areas where legal questions are presented.

The magazine is designed primarily to provide educators, education administrators, attorneys, public officials, and others with basic legal materials beginning with the 1954 decision of the Supreme

Court in the school segregation cases.

Subscriptions are offered at \$2.00 for the six issues which will be published each year.

SAD STATE OF LITERACY: Of every ten children in the world, five do not go to school. Four are in primary school, and one is receiving education beyond the primary grades. Half of the world's people cannot read or write.

Afghanistan's central government pays the entire bill for free education in that country, whereas the Federal government of the United States contributes less than 3 per cent of the total cost of American education, according to an item in Newsweek which is based upon a survey of world education completed by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

The countries with the highest percentage of illiteracy are Somaliland, both Italian and British protectorates (an estimated 99.9), and the noncivilized parts of Portuguese Guinea (99.7). The lowest illiteracy rates are in Danish Greenland and Sweden (estimated at zero), British Bermuda (9), and the United States (an estimated 5). The U.S.S.R. claims a figure of 19 per cent.

FAMILY SOLIDARITY AND JUVENILE DE-LINQUENCY: There's nothing wrong with most kids today that a little more stable home life can't cure, says a judge who has handled more than 100,000 children in the last five years. According to an Associated Press release, Superior Judge William B. McKesson of Los Angeles found that twothirds of all the children who have come before him in that period were from homes where there was only one parent. One of the lines he has heard most frequently from children is: "I never see my mother and father together."

If there is an attitude of solidarity in the home, especially around the dinner table, the chances are stronger, McKesson believes, that children will be more likely to develop a sense of responsibility and not join a gang of kids out hunting excitement—and occasionally trouble.

The judge believes that "the kids of 1956 are no worse than those of 1906 or 1856. They just have more machinery for getting into trouble today."

MORE ON TEACHER RECRUITMENT: Education is urged to use the recruiting practices of the nursing profession to attract teachers. The New York Times reports that this proposal stems from a nationwide survey made by three educational societies at Teachers College, Columbia University. Nursing was chosen for the study because of similarities between the nursing and education professions and the reported success of the nursing recruitment program.

The main recommendations of the report are: (1) Formation of a national committee on careers in education sponsored and supported by the entire teaching profession. (a) Elimination of competitive recruitment in the education field. (3) Education of business, industrial, and professional leaders to their dependence on education to provide trained personnel for all fields. (4) Concentration on a program of education for career choice rather than on a highpressure "selling" campaign. (5) Use of accurate information without overdramatization. (6) Direction of recruitment programs toward reaching young persons early in training and continuation through the period when career choice is made-the ninth grade through college. (7) Wide use of new teachers and education students to talk to young persons interested in teaching as a career.

FEDERAL SCHOOL AID OPPOSED BY A.B.A.: The President of the American Bar Association claims that Federal aid to public schools could ultimately bring the destruction of freedom in this country, according to a news item in the New York Times. The head of the national lawyers' organization criticises the recent White House Conference

on Education as a "serious threat to democracy and freedom" in the long view. At a previous meeting of the American Bar Association, a resolution was passed calling for the spanking of recalcitrant students by teachers and principals.

WHAT IS ADOLESCENCE? Dr. John E. Horrocks reasons in an article appearing in Education that the real problem of adolescence is not suffered by the adolescent but by the adults who must deal with a child who is at times not really a child and whose points of view and idiosyncrasies of behavior, as an adult interprets them, are often unreasonable and hard to understand. He further feels that adolescents are different as are the cultures and subcultures in which they live. In the culture of Canada, the United States, and the greater part of western Europe there are five common denominators that condition an adolescent's development: (1) Adolescence is a time of physical development and growth that forms a continuous pattern common to the race, but idiomatic to the individual. (2) Adolescence tends to be a time of intellectual expansion and development and academic experience. (3) Adolescence tends to be a time of development and evaluation of values. (4) Adolescence is a time of seeking status as an individual. (5) Adolescence is a time when group relationships become of major impor-

### Soviet Education

The Soviet youth of today is being trained for a longer period than ever before to accept the complete equality of both sexes, to work hard for his own advancement and for the "Socialist fatherland," and to understand the basic processes involved in his country's industrial system. And though he may resent much that his government does, he seems grateful for the opportunity provided by the public schools to receive a free education. Our diplomatic policy must take into full account what the youth have been taught in their schools and the fact that the schools are powerful sources of support for the regime. It must be remembered that, even when the Soviet citizen repudiates communism consciously, he cannot automatically and instantaneously shake off the training and mental habits which he has acquired during his formative years; he is bound to reflect many of the values which he has imbibed, often unconsciously, from his teachers and textbooks.-Rurns WIDMAYER in the School Review.

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# Book Reviews



#### FORREST IRWIN, Book Review Editor

South-East Asia between Two Worlds by TIBER MENDE. New York: Library Publishers, 1955. 338 pages, maps, \$3.95.

In 331 pages of concisely written observations, the author of this book has presented a scholarly and challenging treatment of the problems facing three new nations and one-fourth of the world's population. The observations are based on rather extensive travel throughout southeast Asia, but the more or less superficial impressions of the traveler are reinforced with numerous footnotes and quotations from recognized sources.

The author, a native of Hungary, was educated in England and has worked as a foreign correspondent for a leading American newspaper. His sympathies are with the underprivileged peoples of the world, those at present passing through the exciting but dangerous transition from colonialism to statehood. More particularly, in this book, he gives us a sincere and realistic although inevitably prejudiced interpretation of the tremendous economic, social, religious, and political problems faced by Pakistan, Burma, and Indenesia specifically, and by the rest of southeastern Asia inferentially.

The realism and good judgment of the author are illustrated well by his treatment of the title phrase, "between two worlds": "Almost exactly at the middle of the twentieth century, both India and China embarked on their first planned efforts in economic development....

"As always, South-East Asia is living in the shadow of these two enormous countries and its people are closely watching the two historical experiments. And these 600 million people live between the two worlds which are being shaped by these two colossal planning undertakings. They do not live, as some people like to imagine, between Communism on the Russian pattern, on one hand, and Democratic Liberalism, on the Western model, on the other. They do not live between Communism and the West, because the West's way of life, problems and solutions do not correspond to the realities of their existence. The people of South-East Asia live between the two worlds of the Indian kind and the Chinese kind of planning as undertaken in the middle of our own century; between planning by persuasion and planning by force, . . . "

This book deserves to be recommended because it is a wholesome book. Its topic is one of the most serious problems in the current world scene. Its treatment of the subject blends realism with idealism. It is challenging rather than popular. It helps us to understand the question we must inevitably answer: "The question that will be asked with growing insistence is not what the West is against in South-East Asia, but what it is for."

ADELBERT K. BOTTS

Secondary School Administration by Ro-LAND C. FAUNCE. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955. 387 pages, \$4.50.

This book has much to commend it. The effect of interrelated action remains a consistent point of view from start to finish. Understanding of the meaning of programs governs the selection of subject content. Simple exposition is its form. In fact, it is one of the most readable professional books of recent years. The publisher, in the choice of type form and materials, has made the book comfortable to hold, the sentences easy to see, and has priced it somewhat below the average.

The pattern adopted presents analyses of the recognized functions of the secondary principal and relates them to his role of educational specialist and leader. It does not prescribe recipes or specify lists of principles to be memorized. Rather, it describes a program and identifies intrinsic problems. The author recognizes that many of these problems have not been solved and that solutions of them are subject to debate. Hence he presents critical analyses of their elements and lets the reader decide.

Special mention should be made of the discussions on pupil records, scheduling, promotion policies, staff relationships, and appraisal of the principal's growth.

In his analysis of pupil marks and promotion policy, Dr. Faunce has aligned the issues, probed tradition, identified current pressures, and projected the needs. He sees the high school as a live institution with changing objectives, purposes, and personnel. He believes in the ability of the American people to absorb and adopt the changing institutional patterns essential to meeting newer social needs. He has identified the present conflicts, and leaves the choice of direction to the community.

The discussion of scheduling is replete with example and detail to help the novitiate avoid its tenuous pitfalls. Examples are applicable to small schools and to large schools, to traditional programs, transitional programs, and the most progressive programs. Again, discussion is suggestive, not prescriptive.

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The optimistic philosophy of the author is best exemplified in his treatment of board and staff relationships. Here he emphasizes the leadership role of the principal. Respect and mutual confidence are the keynotes of successful staff, faculty, student, and board relations. Understandings form the foundation for successful administration.

In total, Secondary School Administration presents a refreshingly modern approach to the demands, needs, pressures, and requirements confronting the secondary-school principal of 1956. Concise, readable, yet complete, it demands a front seat in the well-filled ranks of writings in this field.

J. W. CRANE REMALEY

These Were Actors by George D. Ford. New York: Library Publishers, 1955. 314 pages, \$5.00.

The story of the Chapmans and the Drakes as told in These Were Actors covers a period of two hundred and fifty years, and such a period encompasses a great many people. Although the spotlight is turned on only a few in each generation, it is often difficult to keep the line of descent straight. Remember when your grandmother told you about your ancestors, how complicated it became? Especially when there were Marys and Johns in practically all the families in several generations.

If the author had set up a graph indicating relationships, and if the years had been noted, knowing who was who would have been easier.

The author, at present the manager of the Ballet Russe de Monte Carlo, has done a great deal of research in order, it would seem, to get and keep the facts straight. Obviously stories told from one generation to the next improve with age, or at least change. Actors would not allow the recounting of their experiences to lack the dramatic touch. The story is told in a gay and vivid style. The founders of both acting dynasties, after years of successful acting in England, came to America at the end of the eighteenth century-the Chapmans to become showboat entrepreneurs and later part of the Gold Rush migration; the Drakes to settle down in Kentucky and build theaters in its many thriving towns. Some of the well-known actors who appear briefly in the pages of the book are Mrs. John Drew, mother of the Barrymores, Joseph Jefferson, the senior and junior Booths, and Edwin Forrest. In 1848, the Chapman grandson and the Drake granddaughter united the families. Their two daughters, Blanche and Ella, professionally known as the Chapman Sisters, were active in the theater from childhood through the first quarter of this century.

Some of the stories about child actors are amazing. Has the Gerry Society or the Child Labor Law curtailed the genius of our children? With half-hour's notice, at age eleven, Blanche, made up and padded, stepped into the difficult role of the nurse in Romeo and Juliet. Sixty-five years later, she essayed the part under almost identical circumstances and won tremendous critical acclaim. In the saga of the Gold Rush days, there were other stories of children: a little girl of six played Hamlet; a tenyear-old played Hamlet, and the next night put on mustache and hump and played Richard III. The imagination can hardly encompass such goings on.

Dozens and dozens of hilarious stories of impromptu additions and changes in the scripts prove again that anything can happen in a performance and most things do. Seemingly there was never a rehearsal, as George M. Cohan used to say, "to take out the improvements."

Blanche Chapman, the last of the Chapmans, married Harry Ford, who owned and managed Ford's Theater in Washington, in which Abraham Lincoln was shot. The author of the book is their son. In the epilogue, he tells the story of the night Lincoln was assasinated as he must have heard it many times from his father. It's a fascinating story.

Anyone interested in the history of the American theater will thoroughly enjoy These Were Actors, even though he may feel inclined to discount some of it as show business hyperbole.

MARGARET D. WILLIAMS

English in Action, Courses 1, 2, 3, 4 (6th ed.) by J. C. Tressler and Henry Christ. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1955. Course 1, 468 pages, \$2.96; Course 2, 468 pages, \$3.12; Course 4, 468 pages, \$3.12; Course 4, 468 pages, \$3.12. Teacher's Manual for Courses 1 and 2, 150 pages, 48 cents; for Courses 3 and 4, 158 pages, 48 cents.

The four books for grades 9 through 12 live up to their title, English in Action. Action, living today and preparing for the future, is the obvious purpose. The lessons are a means to that end. No composition texts before this have so well worked out the relationship of the means to the end.

Each book is divided into two parts, "Language Activities" and "Handbook.—Grammar and Usage." Part I concerns real activities, a large variety of them, in which students have encouragement and definite guidance in listening, reading, speaking, and writing in life situations.

Part II is a handbook for study and reference. The exercises fix the principles in mind with a minimum of mechanical copying and a maximum of thinking about the meaning-exact mechanics, not for their own sake but for a real purpose. They are practice in telling interesting facts and ideas. For example, in Course 4 on pages 280-282 is Practice 3, "Using Commas Correctly." The twentyfour sentences are all about Babe Ruth and, though numbered for class use, are in paragraphs like any other real story. And there is a large picture of Babe Ruth on a blue background. All editors, please follow this example. The important thing in a textbook is what the students do; therefore the exercises and activities should be the most interesting parts and should be illustrated.

Though the lessons are definite, they are flexible for use in bright, slow, and mixed classes. The teacher's manuals are packed with practical suggestions for the slow and the bright. Apparently the publishers spared no expense in photographs, drawings, and color; and the editors, with sympathetic understanding of class situations and with imagination, spared no effort in arrangement.

HELEN RAND MILLER

Auditioning for T.V. by MARTIN BEGLEY and Douglas MacCrae. New York: Hastings House, Inc., 1955. 106 pages, \$3.50.

Told compactly in a brief sixty-one pages, written in a professional style, and yet suitable to the layman and the novice, Auditioning for T.V. describes with factual clarity each step necessary to achieve success as a television actor. The first three

chapters identify the peculiar demands upon an actor made by the medium of television and guide the reader in analysis of his own talents in relation to television, describing effectively the place of psychology in acting. The succeeding chapters provide detailed advice regarding the choosing of material; the development of skill in sight reading, improvisation, and pantomime; how to rehearse; preparation for and conduct in an interview; how to combat nervousness. Each is explained in detail in such a way that both the novice and the experienced actor should be enabled to gain new insights into these skills.

Having described and advised in detail the needed preparation for the big event, the authors take the reader through the experience of the audition step by step, with advice, warning, and encouragement. A final chapter guides the actor who has found a foothold in television by advising regarding "tricks of the trade" to allow his continuing and growing success.

The text of the book is followed by complete scripts for two fifteen-minute television plays written by the authors. While the scripts vary in type, they are particularly adaptable to study and practice. An appendix provides complete terminology for the television actor and a sample "actor's file card."

For the experienced actor, the book should provide both encouragement and direction for trans-

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ferring his talents to the ever changing medium of television. Especially, however, the book would be invaluable for the aspiring actor. The authors skillfully analyze the contribution the actor must make to each word and scene of a show, and the detailed descriptions of each step in preparation for a role should inspire the inexperienced and induce confidence in the talented. Certainly teachers in schools for the training of television actors and in public schools where such courses are given will find this book of real value to their students.

JOHN B. CROSSLEY

Industrial Arts for the General Shop by Delmar W. Olson. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955. 307 pages, \$5.35.

This book is a well-planned and interestingly written text or reference for the use of the general shop teacher. It is written for boys and girls in straightforward, clear language, yet it is not oversimplified for student use. The photographs are well chosen and each is definitely related to the text material. The drawings are clear and understandable and show good taste in design and appropriateness.

The introductory chapter, which explains the purposes of industrial arts to the student, gives an interesting picture of the industrial world and shows how industrial arts activities in the school shop are related to the industrial production processes. There is much valuable guidance material here for the student who reads the text carefully.

The chapter on industrial drawing and design gives the type of information the student can follow in developing a project in the shop-planning center. This chapter can be used either as text material for an organized drawing unit or as an individual guide to the student in planning. The chapter on woodworking is quite complete and well illustrated, yet it offers little that has not already been covered in other books. The suggestions on the design of woodworking projects are appropriate and cleverly given.

The unit on working with metals covers the shop processes quite thoroughly and shows good illustrations of similar processes in industry. The directions for sand casting are especially good and the photographs of this process are excellent. There is much in this chapter to encourage the student to learn more about metalworking. The chapter on the electrical industries covers many of the simple electrical principles and shows how these are applied in industry, the school shop, and the home. Many useful projects which employ electrical principles are suggested for boys to make.

The graphic arts unit gives a good description of commercial printing processes with interesting photographs and illustrations. Linoleum block printing, stenciling, blueprinting, and photography are described student activities. The unit on the ceramic industries covers claywork, glass cutting and drilling, metal enameling, cementwork, and stone polishing. Each of these activities is described in a way that should encourage students to work in these media.

The author takes a fresh view of industrial arts as it applies to the general shop and has produced a book that should be well accepted in industrial arts classes.

FRED O. ARMSTRONG

### The Pamphlet Review

Psychologists in Action by ELIZABETH OGG. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, Inc. (22 E. 38 St.), 1955, 28 pages, 25 cents.

This booklet is designed to serve as an introduction to modern psychology. It is concerned with psychology in everyday life as well as in the classroom and represents an effort by the writer, assisted by a committee of the American Psychological Association, to set forth some of the interesting things now happening in this new science and expanding profession.

A Teachers Guide to Economic Security for Americans by The American Assembly and Lawrence Seness. Washington 6: National Council for the Social Studies (1201 Sixteenth St., N. W.), 1955-125 pages, \$1.00.

The normal hazards of life are the legitimate concern of individuals and families, of business and labor organization, and of government. If young people are to be able to plan wisely for their own futures and participate adequately as employees, employers, and citizens, it is important that they be given the opportunity in school to study these problems under expert guidance. This concise little guide, publisher' by the National Council in cooperation with the American Assembly and the Joint Council on Economic Education, is designed to help classroom teachers integrate this aspect of economic education in their regular courses. It is a self-contained unit on the subject of economic security for Americans.

The first part of the guide, which is based on the staff papers presented at the third session of the American Assembly of Columbia University, analyzes the problem and discusses the historical forces which contributed to economic insecurity. It offers an evaluation of solutions in terms of the efforts of individuals, industry, unions, and government. The second part of the booklet, prepared by Lawrence Senesh and co-operating teachers, suggests appropriate teaching aids for presenting the solutions to the problem. The teaching activities cover all phases of the unit from motivation to culminating activity and, finally, evaluation. In addition, there is an extensive annotated bibliography, including films, fiction, and other source material.

### Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

Mr. Armstrong is head of the industrial arts department, New Jersey State Teachers College, Trenton.

Dr. Botts is professor of geography at the New Jersey State Teachers College, Trenton.

Dr. Crossley is superintendent of the Ventura Union High School District, Ventura, Calif.

Mrs. Miller, teacher of reading at Presidio Hill School, San Francisco, is a former associate editor of The Clearing House.

Dr. Remaley is associate professor of education at the Pennsylvania State University.

Mrs. Williams is chairman of the English department, New Jersey State Teachers College, Jersey City.

### GRADUATE STUDY IN NEW YORK CITY

Fairleigh Dickinson College has set up six part-time instructorships for teachers of mathematics, chemistry, and physics who have their bachelor's or master's degrees and want to work toward higher degrees at New York graduate schools.

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# > JU & the Newer Media -

Edited by PATRICK D. HAZARD

### Camera Eye on Poetry

Marshall McLuhan, author of the essay which follows, believes that we can use our children's awareness of film and TV to help them better appreciate a traditional art form like poetry. His general strategy is to use contemporary awareness of technology as an open door to traditional art and literature. His book, The Mechanical Bride: the Folklore of Industrial Man (1951), will prove immensely interesting to those teachers who find this essay congenial. Professor McLuhan, who teaches English at the University of Toronto, is an associate editor of Explorations, a journal published at the University of Toronto and supported by the Ford Foundation. The magazine attempts to explore ways to bring the humanities into fresh contact with modern man.

When "picturesque" poetry arose in the early eighteenth century, English poets began to exploit a new way of seeing and feeling through pictures. Poetry since then has steadily developed their discoveries. And their discoveries were, to an amazing degree, anticipations of the movie and of television. For that reason, it is easy now in teaching the poetry of Gray and Collins, and of Wordsworth, Coleridge, Scott, Byron, Shelley, and Keats, to train the camera eye on their verses. In so doing, teacher and student will quickly discover a great deal about this earlier poetry that is new and exciting today.

It is not necessary to begin as late as the eighteenth century, however. Let us start with the familiar ballad, "Sir Patrick Spens." It opens with a panoramic shot of a king's court. It is stormy weather. That is why the king sits. The court in those days had to move about because government administration could not expect people to come to court. Roads were too bad.

At once, the camera moves in for a close shot of the king conversing with his counselors. The king has a problem. Note that there is treachery afoot when the "eldern knicht" proposes his solution. At least we learn this from the angry grief of Sir Patrick a few lines later. The next shot is of the preparation of the letter. Then we shift instantly to the seashore and Sir Patrick. Then there are shots of the swift and fatal preparations for the voyage.

Everywhere the poet's shots depend on sudden shifts and startling contrast of image and effect. The opening shot of the king and his court is contrasted with the final shot of Sir Patrick and the same nobles at the bottom of the deep. The efficiency of to the shots of his sissy courtiers and their fancy ladies "wi their fans into their hand."

The ballad was a swift and dramatic form which relied much on short, quick shots or scenes that can be visually realized.

The students should be invited to discover these features as much as possible for themselves. They should be asked to cast the show and to watch for irony and metaphor or symbol.

If the last scene of "Sir Patrick Spens" were to be presented as a radio program, one would naturally look at it closely to discover the acoustic possibilities. The musical and other sound effects of wind and rain and tumult of the seashore would come into their own. Needless to say, in studying this or any other poem through the camera eye, the teacher and student are going to learn a lot about the art of the movie and of television. They would enjoy reading Eisenstein's Film Form to see what a great movie director learned from the poetry of Milton and the novels of Dickens in solving some problems of movie art.

A glance at Collins' "Ode to Evening" from the movie-camera point of view reveals an important feature of landscape poetry. The romantic poets looked for scenes that would correspond to various human feelings and emotions. (The "feelings" refer to sensuous experience, the "emotions" to states of mind.) "Ode to Evening" is a kind of orchestral arrangement of such feelings and emotions. And this orchestration is managed by a rhythmic and undulating succession of scenes which unfold as the poet takes his walk.

To turn from a camera-eye study of this poem to the Autumn or Melancholy of Keats will reveal many fascinating differences and resemblances of scene, tone, and language. Of course, that is one justification of the camera-eye approach—that it reveals the effects of the printed page through another medium. It permits the fruitful method of comparison and contrast (the best way of studying samples from any of the arts) to be followed in many unexpected ways. Also, it relates traditional poetry to our contemporary experience.

Finally, let us turn to a small poem of Wordsworth, "The Solitary Reaper." The poet seems almost to have made it into a shooting script. Note how carefully and exactly he sets the opening visual scene. He places himself in the midst of the scene, both as camera eye and as commentator. Like all the romantic poets, he not only tells you what to see but exactly how the scene should affect you. The first and last stanzas have the same view and sounds. But the two middle stanzas do some surprising leaps and offer some very fantastic shots of Arabia, the Hebrides and ancient clan battles in Celtic mists. These effects are carefully arranged, as in a musical or pictorial composition, to bring about a single emotional impact. Wordsworth seeks the eerie in the everyday as "The Ancient Mariner" of Coleridge seeks the casual and everyday amidst the remote and eerie. Like all poets and artists, Wordsworth in this poem aims to startle and waylay the reader. Every poem is an ambush. And until the reader springs the trap and falls like Alice astonished into another world, he hasn't made contact with the poem.

The camera eye, assisted by sound effects, will help student and teacher to discover the magic formula that will open the secret world that is every great poem.

### The Chayefsky Touch

For over a generation now, the ad agencies have been trying to reduce the words "love" and "beauty" to the level of tooth paste and hair oil. That they have failed to convince "the common man" with their cheap substitutes for the real thing is abundantly clear from the spectacular success of Marty, a movie currently playing the neighborhood theaters. For Marty is no fast-talking smoothie, with slicked-down hair and shining smile; he is a homely Bronx butcher who falls in love with a plain, highschool chemistry teacher from Brooklyn. It is altogether possible that the successful translation of Chayefsky's teleplay, Marty, to its present film form may be a turning point in the popular arts in America. For surely it is clear from the warm response to Marty that the average man is eager to patronize popular arts that embody his own hopes, his legitimate desires and reasonable successes.

Because Marty deals honestly with universal human feelings, it provides an extraordinary opportunity for the teacher to introduce the art of drama to those students who generally resist the blandishments of literature with a capital L.

A collection of Television Plays by Paddy Chayefsky (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1955, 268 pages, \$3.75) not only contains the original teleplay on which the film is based but also several perceptive essays by its young author. The following questions are based in part on a reading of these interpretive essays on the craft of the TV play:

1. What groups is Marty a part of? In what ways does he conform to each of these groups? Why is it important that he break away from his conformity to assert his importance as an individual? How does his individuality grow as he breaks away? What does his final phone call symbolize?

2. Why does Chayefsky have his characters repeat the phrase, "Whaddya wanna do tonight?" What do their aimless leisure habits tell us about Marty's gang? How does the stag-line sequence dramatize the values of the ballroom patrons?

g. How does Chayefsky use cliches to reveal the essential character and situation of ordinary people in the Bronx? For example: "We're not such dogs as we think we are"; "I can't stop talking"; "Boy! that Spillane sure can write!"

4. How do the family situations among Marty's relatives parallel his own search for belonging? What other situations in ordinary life would make a film as interesting as Marty? Why?

5. How does Chayefsky use the mass media to symbolize people's feelings? Examples include the boys looking at girlie magazines and Clara's looking at Ed Sullivan on TV to get away from the feelings evoked by Marty's failure to call back.

Chayefsky's The Catered Affair (M.G.M. 1955; Gore Vidal, scenarist) also deals with basic human situations. Jane Hurley and Ralph Halloran want to get married quickly and quietly because Ralph has a chance to drive a car to California between school terms, giving him and his bride a nice honeymoon in the bargain. Mrs. Hurley is willing to acquiesce in the young couple's wish until the old ladies at the fish market ask her if the girl is "in trouble," getting married so fast. Thereupon plans develop for a "catered affair," complete with ballroom, breakfast, and limousine service for a hundred of the guests. Mr. Hurley objects on the grounds that it would be a colossal waste of money; he has been saving for years to buy his own taxi, and such an affair would wipe out his savings. Alice Scanlon, Jane's best friend and prospective maid of honor, tearfully tells Jane she cannot afford the dress she would need for a big wedding.

A battle of prestige between the Hurleys and Hallorans ensues. The couple finally have their wish respected; they are married at the side altar with only the immediate family present. In the process of rejecting the catered affair, however, everyone begins to understand more fully the importance of making a decent compromise between one's own need for love and respect and the same need in others. This A-1 film play should provide

your classes with excellent motivation for exercises

in writing and speaking.

1. How does Mrs. Hurley's revelation to her daughter about her own marriage add to the meaning of the central theme? Uncle Jack's marriage to Mrs. Rafferty did not occur in the original television play. Is it necessary to a fuller development of

the theme of the play?

a. Each of the characters has a consuming selfinterest that gets in the way of his respect for the rights of others. What "vested interests" dominate the minds of Mrs. Hurley, Uncle Jack, Mr. Hurley, Mr. Halloran, Mrs. Halloran, Mrs. Musso, the married couple-to-be? How does Mrs. Hurley rationalize her desire for a big wedding by explaining it as a way to make up for her earlier lack of love for Jane? Is this kind of rationalization frequent in human behavior?

3. Are you convinced that Mrs. Hurley will really begin to love her husband, after his speech demanding that she begin to think of him for a change? Are there many people just a "talk" away from

understanding and loving each other?

4. Are you happy or disappointed that there was no catered affair? Are big weddings important? Do small, quiet weddings tend to detract from the importance of the event? Why do people get carried away in their attempts to impress each other?

5. Do you think this movie deals more or less honestly with marriage and love than most treatments of the subjects on the popular media? Compare it with a slick magazine story on love and marriage; with a pulp treatment; with a half-hour TV play; with a Hollywood musical; with news-

paper stories on marriage.

6. Do you like the "Bronx realism" for which Paddy Chayefsky has become famous? Is the dialogue he uses a literal, almost tape-recorded transcription of the way people talk or is it an artful selection of idiomatic phrases to reinforce a dramatic point? How do people in your own neighborhood talk about love and marriage? Could you make a play about them by just copying down what they say? Is there raw material for interesting drama in the everyday life of people on your block? Sketch the outlines of such potential plays and compare your ideas with those of your classmates.

7. Read some Paddy Chayefsky plays and try to determine what constitutes the "Bronx realism" of his school of writing. Read reviews of his play, Middle of the Night, that opened on Broadway in February, starring Edward G. Robinson. Try to find out more about the group of young playwrights supported by producer Fred Coe of NBG-TV. (Some of their plays appear on Coe's program, Playwrights '56, alternate Tuesdays, NBC-TV, 9:30 P.M.) Tad Mosel, N. Richard Nash, J. P. Miller, Mann Rubin, and Robert Alan Aurthur are among those in the

so-called Chayefsky school who have gone on from writing for TV to movies and the legitimate stage. Some sponsors have complained that they are too gloomy, too unconcerned with the smiling aspects of American life. The sponsors feel that Americans demand "upbeat" endings in the plays they watch. Do you agree?

### From the Critics' Notebook

From time to time we will print excerpts from current periodicals and newspapers illustrating the best that is being thought and said about TV and other popular arts. This service, at the same time that it gives you perceptive comments for stimulating students to think about the popular arts, will likewise acquaint you and them with some of the outstanding critics. Controversial programs and opinions about them can provide excellent motivation for writing, speaking, and research assignments in the English and social studies classrooms.

In the TV section of the Washington Post and Times Herald for January 1, 1956, Critic Lawrence Laurent pulled a switch: he listed the ten worst programs of 1955 and asked that there be no more like them in 1956. The ten, "in no particular order of inferiority," were as follows:

Gloria Vanderbilt's TV dramatic debut ("a most painful experience for the viewers").

The Big Surprise ("proved that money alone is not enough").

Allen in Movieland ("it had the something that drives . . . customers out of movie theaters. . .").

Milton Berle and Ann Sothern in a Gore Vidal drama ("no possible excuse for the drama").

This Is Your Life ("your life is none of Ralph Edwards' business").

Johnnie Ray in The Big Shot ("Johnnie's acting is enough to make one CRY").

The Twentieth Century-Fox Cavalcade ("Noel Coward's play was all but ignored. Why?").

The Miss America Pageant ("why do contestants spend so much time on clothing and grooming and completely neglect their voices?").

Dateline: Disneyland ("a technical botch"; "raised more questions than it answered").

Remember? 1938. ("Yes, I remember 1938 and I hope some day I can forget 'Remember? 1938'").

Ask students to compose their lists of the most forgettable shows of 1955. See how many agree with Laurent. The important thing is the reasoning. for a vivid understanding and appreciation of what American freedom really is . . .

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